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ART. I. *History of the House of Austria*, from the Foundation of the Monarchy, by Rhodolph of Hapsburgh, to the Death of Leopold the Second: 1218....to....1792. By William Coxe, F.R.S. F.A.S. Archdeacon of Wilts, and Rector of Bemerton. 3 Vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

AN eminent and lively writer* has testified his regret that the page of modern history should be so much loaded, as in fact it is, with accounts of marriages and the details of pedigrees: but the cause of its being thus incumbered is to be found in the late constitution and circumstances of what has been termed the European commonwealth, and in that law which established representative in preference to collateral succession; and however frivolous those particulars may be deemed, it will, we apprehend, be scarcely denied that, without paying due attention to them, the relations with which they are connected will be utterly unintelligible. The station occupied by the Princes of the House of Austria, in the transactions of the middle ages and of subsequent periods, has been too considerable, not to render it highly desireable for those who wish thoroughly to comprehend them, to become acquainted with the members of the various lines into which this august family has branched. Even in this view of it alone, then, the work before us presents strong claims to attention: but, moreover, the subject is in itself of the highest interest and dignity, and eminently curious. It is connected with all the great events which have given their colour and character to modern times; and it displays a course of propitious fortune, of which human annals furnish scarcely a parallel, whether we regard the elevation to which the descendants of Rudolph have reached, or the duration of their prosperous career. How striking is the contrast between Rudolph Count of Hapsburgh doing homage to an Abbot,

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* Voltaire.

and Charles V. in the plenitude of his power! It is at once an interesting and an inspiring contemplation.

The manner in which this portion of history attracted Mr. Coxe's attention is thus stated:

'The House of Austria has long been the subject of my contemplations. During my Travels in Switzerland, the character and exploits of Rhodolph of Hapsburgh, and the deeds of his immediate descendants, naturally arrested my attention, and found a place in my first publication *. While resident at Vienna the subject pressed more strongly on my mind; and from the rich stores of the Imperial Library, and other sources of information, I collected abundant materials for Biographical Memoirs of the great Founder of this illustrious family. Other travels, and other publications, suspended this design; and I changed it for the Historical and Political State of Europe, in which the House of Austria was intended to form a conspicuous figure. This plan was, however, relinquished, for reasons which I have mentioned in the Preface to the Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole; but my collections for the Austrian History still continued to augment, particularly during two subsequent visits to Vienna. New literary pursuits still suspended, without diverting my design; and the papers, to which I obtained access, while I was compiling the Memoirs of Sir Robert and Lord Walpole, swelled the mass of materials, and threw a new and interesting light on the modern period of the Austrian Annals. At length I found leisure to turn my whole attention to a work, which I had been unwilling to relinquish, though unable to complete; and the result of my labours is the Book now offered to the Reader.'—

Mr. C.'s authorities, he informs us, are Printed, Manuscript, and Oral.

'It would be superfluous to recapitulate the titles of the numerous works which I have consulted and compared, particularly as they are generally quoted at the close of every chapter, often in every page, and constantly referred to at the termination of each reign.

'The Manuscript Authorities commence with the accession of Charles the Sixth; and, as a bare catalogue would fill several pages, I shall only mention the principal.

'I have had the singular good fortune to obtain access to the papers of most of the British ministers at the Court of Vienna, from 1714 to 1792. These are;

'I. The Letters of General Stanhope, Lord Cobham, General Cadogan, and Sir Luke Schaub, who were sent to Vienna to negotiate the Barrier Treaty.—In the Walpole Papers.

'II. The papers of St. Saphorin, a native of Switzerland, who was British agent at Vienna from 1720 to 1728.—In the Walpole, Townshend, Hardwicke, and Waldegrave papers.

'III. The dispatches of Lord Waldegrave, during his embassy from 1728 to 1730.—In the Waldegrave papers.

'IV. The diplomatic correspondence of Sir Thomas Robinson, afterwards Lord Grantham, during his long residence at Vienna,

'* Letters on Switzerland.'

from

from 1730 to 1748; as well as at the congress of Aix la Chapelle, where he was Plenipotentiary.—In the Grantham papers.

'V. The dispatches of Mr. Keith, during his residence as British minister at Vienna, from 1747 to 1758. During this period he witnessed the breach of that alliance with England, which nature, gratitude, and political interests had all contributed to cement; and that sinister union with France, which, however vaunted, however splendid and specious in its commencement, was the most fatal inheritance ever left by a sovereign to his successor, and the most prominent among the various causes which have led to the present humiliation of Austria, and the pernicious aggrandisement of France.

'VI. But the documents of all others the most important, and without which I could not have completed the latter part of the History, are contained in the papers of his son Sir Robert Murray Keith, which commence with 1772, terminate at the close of 1791, and comprise the latter part of the reign of Maria Theresa, and those of Joseph and Leopold.

'For the use of these two invaluable collections, I am indebted so Mrs. Murray Keith, the only surviving sister of Sir Robert Keith, by the intervention of my noble friend the Earl of Hardwicke, whose uninterrupted kindness I cannot acknowledge in terms sufficiently grateful.

'VII. Besides these documents penned at Vienna, I have had recourse to the extensive correspondence of the ministers at home, or embassadors in foreign courts, contained in the Orford, Walpole, Townsend, Hardwicke, Keene, Harrington, and other collections, which are enumerated in the prefaces to the Memoirs of Sir Robert and Lord Walpole.

'VIII. Other papers, of recent date, delicacy precludes me from particularizing.

'I cannot specify all the sources of Oral Information, which I acquired during my travels, from foreign embassadors, and the ministers of the respective courts which I visited. Among them, however, I may be permitted to mention the Prussian minister count Hertzberg, and some confidential friends of prince Kaunitz. I have also derived intelligence from numerous persons in high stations, both at home and abroad, who have taken a share in the transactions during the reigns of Maria Theresa, and her two successors.'

What is to be expected from Mr. Coxe, supplied with such ample and choice means for the execution of his arduous undertaking, few of our readers will be at any loss to judge. His former respectable labours will induce them to augur favourably of his present efforts, and we are deceived in our judgment if, on the whole, their hopes are not fulfilled.

A neat and concise account of the origin of the princes of Hapsburgh introduces the work. The annals of this House, and of its eminent leader, Rudolph, cannot be unknown to readers of history, particularly to those who have perused

Mr. Planta's valuable *History of the Helvetic Confederacy*, even our accounts of that work in M. Rev. Vol. xxxii. N. S. pp. 161 and 405. Mr. Coxe has in course been indebted to the pages of that publication, which indeed he quotes: nevertheless, his sketch of Rudolph is masterly; and he is made to appear worthy of his high destiny. A profane expression of the Bishop of Basle, whom Rudolph had completely subdued, on hearing of his elevation, strongly paints the idea entertained of him by his cotemporaries;* "Sit fast, great God, or Rudolph will occupy thy throne." Yet a very simple incident seems to have contributed more to Rudolph's exaltation than all his acknowleged merits; which were confined to too remote and narrow a sphere, to admit of his being raised by means of them to the summit which he afterward obtained. The author relates that

'Many circumstances contributed to favour his advancement, among which the most effectual were the views and interests of the seven Electors, by whom the right of nomination was at this time assumed; namely, the archbishops of Mentz, Cologne, and Treves, the king of Bohemia, Otho margrave of Brandenburgh, Albert duke of Saxony, and Louis duke of Bavaria and count Palatine, who seems to have possessed a joint vote with his brother Henry. Of these the most strenuous in the cause of Rhodolph was Werner of Eppenstein, elector of Mentz. On his nomination to the archi-episcopal see of Mentz, Werner had repaired to Rome, in order to receive the confirmation of his office, and the pallium from the hands of the Pope; and as the road was infested with banditti, he was escorted by Rhodolph himself across the Alps, and treated on his return with equal cordiality and magnificence. Werner, captivated by his attentions, character, and talents, expressed a wish that he might live to repay the obligation. Such an opportunity now presented itself, and Werner used all his influence and intrigue to secure the nomination of Rhodolph. He secretly gained the Electors of Cologne and Treves; and found means to influence the secular Electors, by the prospect of a matrimonial alliance with their future chief, who had six daughters unmarried. His intrigues and recommendation were strongly supported by Frederic of Hohenzollern the friend and relation of Rhodolph, who had great influence with the secular Electors, contributed to remove all obstacles, and concluded the negotiation in his name.'

Rudolph figures so much in general history, that it is unnecessary for us to extract more than a few of: he striking traits of his character. Speaking of the various salutary regulations and edicts which he enforced, Mr. Coxe observes:

'The principal and most useful, though the most difficult attempt, was to enforce the laws which prohibited the building and maintenance of fortresses not necessary for the security of the empire. This pro-

hibition had been generally neglected, and the number of fortresses had so greatly increased, that not only the superior princes, but even almost all the petty nobles possessed castles, from which they harassed the neighbouring countries by continual incursions. Rhodolph well knowing that while these fortresses were permitted to remain, the internal tranquillity of the empire could not be permanently established; he determined to carry the law into execution with the utmost rigour, and was rather encouraged than intimidated by the difficulty of the attempt. He condemned to death nine and twenty nobles of the most illustrious families of Thuringia, who had broken the public peace; and razed in one year seventy castles and strong holds, the habitation of banditti, or of powerful barons worse than banditti. In the prosecution of this design he acted with irreproachable impartiality; and his answer to a petition in behalf of the delinquent nobles deserves to be recorded: "Do not, I beseech you, interfere in favour of robbers, or endeavour to rescue them from that death which they deserve; for they are not nobles, but the most accursed robbers, who oppress the poor, and break the public peace. True nobility is faithful and just, offends no one, and commits no injury."

'The whole of his reign, in which he was not engaged in military expeditions, was passed in visiting the Imperial cities; and if the numerous decrees and charters which he signed at the different places, did not prove his frequent journies throughout the German empire, it would appear scarcely credible, that Rhodolph at so advanced an age could have transacted such a multiplicity of business, or have undergone such incessant fatigue. Hence he was justly called by a contemporary prince, Lex animata, or a living law, and has been since distinguished by historians, as the second founder of the German empire.'—

'We shall close this account of the great Founder of the House of Austria with a few anecdotes relating to his person and character. Rhodolph was above the ordinary stature, being nearly seven feet in height, but extremely slender; his head was small and almost bald, his complexion pale, his nose large and aquiline. His natural aspect was grave and composed; but he no sooner began to speak than his countenance brightened into animation. His manners were so captivating, and he possessed the art of persuasion in so eminent a degree, that, to use the expression of Dornavius, one of his panegyrists, "he fascinated persons of all ranks, as if with a love potion." He was plain, unaffected, and simple in his dress; and was accustomed to say that he considered the majesty of a sovereign as consisting rather in princely virtues than in magnificence of apparel.

'Being engaged in hunting, he met between Fahr and Baden, a priest on foot, carrying the host to a sick person; and as the road was extremely dirty, and the torrents swollen with rain, he alighted, and gave his horse to the priest, saying, it ill became him to ride, while the bearer of Christ's body walked on foot; at the same time he expressed his gratitude and veneration to the Supreme Being, who had raised him from the huts of his ancestors, to the throne of the empire.'

'After he was Emperor, being at Mentz in the midst of his officers, he saw Muller the citizen of Zurich, who had rescued him in the battle against the count of Regensberg. He instantly rose up to meet him, received him with the warmest demonstrations of friendship and regard, and conferred on him the honour of knighthood. Being asked why he lavished such favours on a person of no rank, he replied, "When I was count of Hapsburgh, and fell into the hands of my enemies, this man rescued me, and mounted me on his own horse; and by his assistance I was delivered from almost inevitable destruction. It is my duty, therefore, to pay him every mark of distinction in my power, to whom, next to God, I owe the preservation of my life."—

'He was by nature warm and choleric, but as he advanced in years he corrected this defect. Some of his friends expressing their wonder that since his elevation to the Imperial dignity he had restrained the vehemence of his temper, he replied, "I have often repented of being passionate, but never of being mild and humane." His heart was neither steeled nor corrupted by power, and the goodness of his disposition rose superior to the paltry consideration of his own private interest. To the tax-gatherers he said, "The cry of distress has reached my ears; you compel travellers to pay duties which they ought not to pay, and to bear burthens which they cannot support. Do not unjustly seize what belongs to others; but take only your due. It is my duty to employ vigilance, and to promote justice and tranquillity, which I consider as the greatest blessings under heaven." He was also easy of access, even to persons of the lowest condition. To his soldiers, who endeavoured to prevent the approach of some poor men, he observed, "For God's sake, let them alone, I was not elected Emperor to be secluded from mankind."—

'He seems to have been no less distinguished for playful wit and pleasantry. Being at Mentz in 1288, he walked out early in the morning, dressed as usual in the plainest manner, and as the weather was cold, entered a baker's shop to warm himself. The mistress, unacquainted with his person, peevishly exclaimed, "Soldiers ought not to come into poor women's houses;"—"Do not be angry, good woman," returned the king of the Romans, with great complacency, "I am an old soldier, who have spent all my fortune in the service of that rascal Rhodolph, and he suffers me to want, notwithstanding all his fine promises." "As you serve," rejoined the woman, "that fellow who has laid waste the whole earth, and devoured the poor, you have deservedly incurred all your misfortunes." She then virulently abused the king of the Romans, adding, with great bitterness, that she and all the bakers in the town, except two, were ruined by his means; and compelled him to depart, by throwing a pale of water on the fire, which filled the room with smoke and vapour.

'Rhodolph, on sitting down to dinner, ordered his hostess to convey a boar's head and a bottle of wine, to her neighbour the baker's wife, as a present from the old soldier who had warmed himself in the morning by her fire, and then related the anecdote with much humour. When thus apprised of her mistake, the woman was

greatly terrified, and approaching the table, entreated forgiveness in the most suppliant manner. Rhodolph consented, on condition that she would repeat her abusive expressions, with which the woman faithfully complied, to the amusement and laughter of all who were present.'

Historians, like the writers of romance, are too apt to sketch their characters as altogether bad, or uniformly good: but Mr. Coxe seems to be laudably and studiously on his guard against this prevalent defect; as is exemplified in his summary of the actions and conduct of Albert the son and successor of Rudolph:

'The character of Albert has been more stigmatized than it deserved by the passions or prejudices of historians; and seems to have suffered from too near a comparison with the splendid talents, insinuating manners, and winning disposition of his illustrious father. He was a tender and faithful husband, a fond and affectionate parent, and was in return almost adored by his family. He equally abhorred flattery and slander, possessed a just sense of propriety and decorum, a perfect controul over his passions, and was superior to the allurements of pleasure, or the attractions of ease. He was distinguished for military talents, and was scarcely inferior to any personage, who has obtained the admiration of mankind, in firmness, decision, activity, valour, promptitude, and energy. As chief of the empire, he held the reins of government with a vigorous hand; maintained the public peace with a vigilance equal to his father; and, though devout in the exercises of religion, resisted with becoming dignity the arrogant pretensions of the see of Rome, and curbed the encroaching spirit of the ecclesiastical Electors. But as a sovereign he was arrogant and despotic, of a restless and rapacious disposition, and he pursued his schemes for the advancement of his family with an inflexible pertinacity, and with little regard either to the feelings of pity or the sentiments of justice. Uncouth and vulgar in appearance, ferocious and unseemly in aspect, gloomy and reserved by habit and constitution, even his good qualities were obscured, and his failings exaggerated by his personal defects, and, to adopt the strong language of the Swiss historian (Planta), "Virtue in him bore the semblance of selfishness."

The reader will derive valuable instruction from the details of the effects of religious dissentions, which he will discover in the accounts here given of the affairs of Bohemia. Modern history is replete with instances of the mischiefs which confined notions of religious toleration have inflicted on the human race. The relations which respect Hungary, and which exhibit the gallant exploits of the brave Hunniades,—particularly his crowning atchievement, in which the hero nobly fell, we mean the delivery of Belgrade,—and the tale which records the black ingratitude of the degenerate Ladis-

laus Posthumus, will be perused by every reader of sensibility with the utmost interest.

The subsequent passages present us with transactions which ordinary historians are too apt to overlook, but which Mr. Coxe stands honorably distinguished by an anxiety to discover and exhibit. It is also no more than justice to ballance these services against the defects of another kind with which the monarch in question was chargeable:

'During the reign of Frederic, as well as in preceding times, various attempts were made for the maintenance of the public peace, by instituting a superior court of judicature, or Imperial Chamber, to which the princes, states, and nobles, might have recourse, instead of appealing to the sword. But most of these endeavours being frustrated by the difficulty of reconciling the prerogatives of the emperor with the privileges claimed for the Imperial Chamber, and providing for the maintenance of the judges, Frederic laboured to consolidate a confederacy, which, by its union and power, might awe the greater princes, repress banditti, and maintain the public tranquillity.

'On former occasions the states and towns had confederated for mutual support, either against the encroachments of the emperors, or the aggressions of the nobles; and the nobles in their turn associated to resist the leagues of the towns. From this principle arose the Helvetic confederacy, the Hanseatic union, and the league of the commercial cities in Suabia, and on the Rhine; and the counter confederacies of the nobles, of which that called the shield of St. George and the Lion still existed. Most of the preceding emperors, who had found these associations a considerable check on their authority, opposed their formation, and endeavoured to establish the principle, that no league could be formed without the consent of the chief. Frederic himself, in the early part of his reign, had been actuated by the same motive, and had used his utmost exertions to dissolve the Helvetic union; but his want of power, and the failure of his attempts to establish the public peace, induced him to change his plan of policy.

'Suabia was the part of Germany best adapted for the fulfilment of his views, as it abounded with imperial towns, and being divided into numerous states and lordships without a superior head, was immediately dependent on the emperor and empire. Accordingly, after proclaiming a public peace for ten years, Frederic convened a meeting of the Suabian states, and induced them to accede to his plan. The ancient confederacy of St. George was adopted as the basis of the system; but instead of being confined solely to the nobles, it comprehended princes, nobles, towns, and vassals. At the commencement, the confederacy consisted only of four prelates, three counts, sixteen knights, and six towns, and articles were framed for the direction of the union, the decision of disputes, the proportion of succours, and the admission of new members. The knights and turbulent barons, whose employment was warfare, and whose wealth was derived from plunder, were averse to a league which was calculat-

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ed to repress their exactions. Many were however persuaded, and others compelled to accede, by the emperor, who threatened to punish their refusal with fines, and the ban of the empire; and before the close of the year, the confederacy amounted to twenty-two towns, thirteen prelates, twelve counts, and three hundred and fifty knights. This union was strengthened by the accession of the greater princes, both in Suabia, and the adjacent parts of the empire; and among its members were numbered Sigismond of Tyrol, the count of Wirtemberg, the margrave of Baden, the electors of Mentz and Treves, and the margraves Frederic and Sigismond of Brandenburgh.

'The good effects of this union were soon perceived; for one hundred and forty strong holds of nobles or banditti were demolished, and the first efforts of the league humbled the powerful House of Bavaria, who, to use the expressions of Frederic before the Diet, "had repeatedly insulted the majesty of the empire, and whose domestic dissentions, and ambitious projects, had incessantly disturbed the tranquillity of Germany." George, duke of Bavaria Landshut, was compelled to make reparation for an injury committed by his officers on the abbot of Rogenburgh, a member of the league, and by its assistance, Frederic himself was enabled to curb the refractory spirit of Albert of Munich.'

Mr. Coxe introduces to his readers the son and successor of Frederic, by remarking that 'to an aged, feeble, and parsimonious sovereign succeeded Maximilian, an active and liberal prince, in the prime of manhood, whose character and situation encouraged the hope of a glorious administration;' and in a note we meet with a short disquisition on the singular name borne by this emperor:

'The name of Maximilian had at this time never been borne by any of the Austrian family, and was an unusual appellation in Europe. The industry of the Austrian biographers has discovered a saint Maximilian, bishop of Lork, and martyr, in the third century; and they conjecture that the young prince received this name in consequence of a vow made by his father, during the siege of Vienna. But, with Fugger, we may with more probability ascribe the adoption of this name to the whimsical opinions of Frederic, who is said to have formed it, after consulting the stars, from combining the appellations of Fabius MAXIMUS and Paulus ÆMILIUS.'

If Mr. Coxe has failed in any part of his present undertaking, the defect arises not from a want of the requisite knowlege to do it justice; as will appear by the following quotations, taken from his account of the state of Germany, and the situations of its chiefs in the time of Maximilian:

'Germany, which formed an extensive territory, important from its local position, supported a numerous population, comprised an assemblage of rich and flourishing towns, and supplied a military force superior in numbers, and equal in valour and discipline, to the troops

troops of any other country in Europe. It consisted of numerous sovereignties and states, independent of each other, and differing in extent and power; but all united in one system of government by means of a general Diet, and under the direction of a single chief. With all these advantages, Germany had maintained in former times, and was still capable of maintaining the preponderance among the nations of Europe; but from the jarring interests of its component parts, the circumscribed authority of the chief, and the division of the principal houses into numerous branches, it could never be brought to act with energy and vigour in external affairs, and its principal efforts were exerted in resisting foreign aggressions, and preserving internal tranquillity. This object was, however, less affected by public institutions than by family compacts among the princes, and separate associations among the states; of which the Hanseatic league in the north, and the Suabian league in the south, were the most conspicuous. The whole nation was absorbed in this single object; and to the maintenance of internal tranquillity sacrificed every consideration of public honour, military glory, and external advantage.' —

'As emperor of Germany, Maximilian was indeed treated with all the majesty of human authority, considered as the first sovereign in Europe, served by kings and electors, and with his single word could confer even the regal title. But in reality this vast power existed principally in theory; the kings and electors, who, on occasions of pomp and ceremony, performed the offices of his household, were either his equals or superiors; and when influenced by interest or caprice, did not scruple to resist his authority. He succeeded to the claims of his predecessors on the numerous imperial fiefs of Germany and Italy, and was supposed to be invested with the supreme jurisdiction over the extensive territories and dependencies of the empire; but in reality he did not possess the smallest portion of that domain which belonged to the ancient emperors, or a single town, castle, or foot of land, as head of the empire. Instead of stated revenues he was reduced to depend on the uncertain aids granted reluctantly by the Diet; and his judicial authority was diminished by the municipal jurisdictions which all the electors, and many of the princes possessed within the precincts of their own dominions.'

The impartiality of the historian induces him to state at length the conduct of Maximilian in the affair of the Bavarian succession; in which, it must be owned, he acted with laudable decision, distinguished personal bravery, justice, and generosity.

The situation of Venice, at the time of forming the league of Cambray, bears some resemblance to that of another country at the present moment. Mr. Coxe is, we think, rather severe on the late republic; and though facts undoubtedly exist which support his accusations, he himself accounts for this famous conspiracy of states on a ground different from that of resentment for misconduct, namely that

that of the interested views of the several parties to the confederacy;

'Maximilian found a similar disposition in the pope, the other states of Italy, and the kings of France and Arragon; for there was scarcely a power in the south of Europe, which this haughty and flourishing republic had not offended by its pride, injured by its rapacity, or betrayed by its perfidy. Louis the Twelfth coveted the possession of Brescia and Bergamo, which, during the administration of the Sforza family, they had dismembered from the duchy of Milan, and of Cremona and the Ghiradadda, which he had himself yielded to them as the price of their assistance during his Italian expeditions; he had been offended by their support of his enemies during the war for the kingdom of Naples, and his indignation was now redoubled by the conclusion of the separate armistice with the emperor. The king of Arragon, on his part, forgot the important aid which he had derived from the secret connivance or open support of the Venetians, to which he was principally indebted for the possession of Naples; and with that selfish policy, which marked all his actions, was anxious to deprive them of the maritime towns of Trani, Brindisium, Gallipoli, and Otranto, which had been mortgaged to them by the former Neapolitan kings of the house of Arragon. Julius the Second had reluctantly suffered the Venetians to retain possession of Faenza, Rimini, and Ravenna; and his pride was wounded by the disrespect which they testified towards the Roman See, and by their refusal to confirm his nomination of his nephew to the bishopric of Vicenza. The minor princes of Italy were eager to concur in hastening the downfall of Venice, whose incroaching and domineering spirit had kept them in perpetual apprehension; and their cupidity was stimulated by the prospect of sharing in her spoils. The duke of Savoy was desirous to obtain Cyprus; the Polesino of Rovigo tempted the duke of Ferrara; and the Florentines hoped to acquire Pisa, which, by the assistance of the Venetians, had hitherto opposed their arms.'

Though Frederic and his son Maximilian appear not advantageously in foreign affairs, it is indubitable that they paid most commendable attention to the internal concerns of the empire; and it is remarked by Mr. Coxe that

'However unsuccessful and wavering Maximilian may be deemed in his wild schemes of foreign politics, yet in the internal administration of his own territories, and of the empire, he was distinguished for the wisdom of his measures and the utility of his establishments. In 1500, he induced the Diet to adopt the system of Albert the Second, and to divide a part of the empire into districts or circles, each of which was charged with the maintenance of the public peace among its own members; but as the dominions of Austria and Burgundy were excluded, and as the electors refused to include their teritories in the division, the new system was at first confined to Bavaria, Franconia, Suabia, Saxony, the Rhine, and Westphalia, which are termed the six antient circles. The advantages of this division

division encouraged Maximilian to resume the project at the Diet of Cologne in 1512, by forming the territories of his family into the two circles of Austria and Burgundy. All the electors following his example, a new arrangement was made, by which the empire was divided into the ten circles of Austria, Burgundy, the Upper and Lower Rhine, Franconia, Bavaria, Suabia, Westphalia, and Upper and Lower Saxony. The affairs of each circle were to be regulated in an assembly or Diet; and over each was appointed a director for the maintenance of internal tranquillity, and a colonel or leader for military expeditions, and the care of the troops and fortresses. The director, who was generally the most powerful prince in each district, was nominated by the emperor, and the colonel by the states of the circle. Other regulations were at the same time sketched out, particularly the establishment of a senate or permanent council, to accompany the emperor, but these were not, at that time, carried into execution, and have since sunk into oblivion.

'The constant and active part which Maximilian took in the transactions of the empire, and of Europe, has principally attracted the attention of historians, who have almost passed over in silence those of his own hereditary dominions. But their very silence proves the vigour and wisdom of his administration; for it evinces that his states were relieved from those troubles and disorders which mark the reigns of all his predecessors; and all his provinces exempted from the distresses and calamities of war, except those which were exposed to the attacks of the Venetians.

'The internal regulations which he made in his hereditary countries reflect the highest honour on his reign. Having first secured to them the advantages arising from the public peace, by forming them into a circle of the empire, he afterwards reduced the interior policy into a system, by subdividing them into the districts of Lower and Exterior Austria, and those into smaller districts, which were governed by separate courts. He first established in Austria various boards or colleges for the administration of justice, the management of the revenue, the direction of the ordnance, buildings, the affairs of the chace, and other rights of the sovereign. Over these he instituted a tribunal, since known by the name of the Aulic Council, which was to receive appeals, and to assist him with a written opinion in political affairs of importance. The same system was afterwards extended to Exterior Austria, by the establishment of councils of regency at Innspruck for the Tyrol, and at Encisheim for the other provinces. By these and other judicious regulations, and by the vigilance of his government, Maximilian retained his turbulent nobles in subjection, and kept his dominions in a state of uninterrupted tranquillity. His example produced a salutary effect, and under his reign the jurisprudence of Germany acquired a systematic consistency, by the introduction of similar aulic councils at the courts of the different princes.'

In consequence of his researches into German writers, the author has the merit of placing the characters of these two emperors in a more just light than most of our modern historians;

torians; who, when speaking of them generally, copied from writers who were passing judgment only on their foreign transactions, and were not required to give a view of their whole conduct. In this way we are to account for the disadvantageous light in which Maximilian appears in the history of Guicciardini, from whom our English annalists seem to have taken their impressions.

When summing up his elaborate and interesting account of this Potentate, Mr. Coxe says:

'Of all the successors of Rhodolph of Hapsburgh, Maximilian is the most remarkable for his personal and mental qualifications. He was not above the middle size, but his limbs were muscular and well proportioned, and he possessed that peculiar conformation of body, which unites the greatest strength with the greatest activity. To adopt the description of the Austrian biographer, his countenance was manly and animated, his eyes blue, his checks full and round, his nose aquiline, his mouth small and handsome, and his chin raised and pointed; his gait and gesture were graceful and majestic, his tone of voice melodious, and his manners dignified, amiable, frank, and conciliating. Though temperate and sober, he possessed a convivial disposition, and inherited a considerable portion of that playful raillery and facetiousness, for which the great founder of his House was so remarkable.

'No prince ever displayed more unpromising appearances in his infancy and youth, or was ever more successful in conquering the disadvantages of nature and education. Till the tenth year of his age, the indistinctness of his articulation procured him the appellation of The Dumb Prince; and yet this infirmity was afterwards so entirely removed, that he commanded the admiration of all, by his consummate eloquence, and by the extraordinary facility with which he spoke the Latin, French, German, Italian, and several other languages. He received the early part of his education under Peter Engelbert, a man of piety, but a pedant, who disgusted his royal pupil by his dry and tedious manner of communicating instruction. Yet Maximilian, thus circumstanced in early years, when habits are generally formed which continue through life, became, by his own industry and application, one of the most learned and accomplished princes of the age. He was remarkable for his multifarious knowledge in the whole circle of the arts and sciences, and promoted the cultivation of literature by his patronage and example.'

Having described his passion for hazardous exercises, and for the feats of the tournament in particular, and having related an instance of his signal success in this career, Mr. C. observes that

'No prince of his age was more distinguished for those qualities and acquirements, which form the character of a warrior, than Maximilian. His constitution was capable of supporting all the changes and severities of the seasons; he was patient of fatigue, active and enterprising even to rashness, ardent for glory, and possessed a mind

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superior to dangers and difficulties. He surpassed his contemporaries in all military exercises, and was no less intimately acquainted with the theory than with the practice of war. He improved the foundry of cannon, the construction of fire arms, and the tempering of defensive armour; made various discoveries in pyrotechny, and was master of all the science of gunnery and fortification known in his times. He first introduced into his dominions a standing army, facilitated the evolutions and discipline of his forces by dividing them into companies, troops, and regiments, and armed them with a new species of lance, which came into general use, and obtained, for the German infantry, the name of lantzknechte or lansquenets.'

Though general history records the proofs of this monarch's versatility and prodigality, it has been left to Mr. Coxe to furnish most in detail to the English reader those of his extravagant vanity: but vanity, we believe, seldom exists in this degree without being bottomed on considerable merit. This weakness of the emperor was more fantastic, but not more excessive, than the similar infirmity of the philosophical orator, the pride and boast of Rome, and the delight of all future ages:

'Maximilian (says Mr. Coxe) possessed the pardonable vanity of wishing to transmit his family, name, and atchievements to posterity; but which, like his other pursuits, he carried to excess. He wrote numerous treatises on every branch of human knowledge; on religion, morality, the military art, architecture, his own inventions, and even on hunting, hawking, gardening, and cookery. He sent throughout Germany persons of learning to search the archives of convents and abbies, to collect genealogies of his ancestors, and to examine the repositories of the dead for monumental inscriptions. From these materials, Manlius, one of his secretaries, compiled a history of his family, which Maximilian was accustomed to peruse, and which, almost in his dying moments, contributed to his amusement and consolation. After the manner of the antients his table was constantly attended by literati, whose office was to collect his sayings, and record his apophthegms; and he was accustomed to dictate to his secretaries accounts of his life and actions, and descriptions of his numerous adventures and hair-breadth escapes. To these circumstances we owe a wonderfully minute account of the character, acquirements, and adventures of Maximilian; but to these circumstances we must likewise attribute that air and colouring of romance which is cast over his whole history, and which exhibits him as a being endowed with supernatural faculties, and moving in a superior sphere, or like the heroes which figure in eastern fable, and the annals of chivalry. Thus he is said to have assaulted lions in their cages, and forced them to repress their native ferocity; he fell from towers unhurt; he escaped from shipwreck, and from fire; and, when lost amid the rocks and precipices of the Tyrol, whither he had penetrated in his favourite occupation of hunting the chamois, and on the point of perishing with hunger and fatigue, he is extricated by an angel in the shape of a peasant boy.'

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The author thus concludes his able and faithful sketch of this singular Prince;

'Notwithstanding all the exaggerations of flattery, or the glosses of self-love, Maximilian was doubtless extraordinary, both as a man and a prince; and though too much depreciated by modern historians, who seem only to have discerned his failings, his misfortunes, and his wants, he rose superior to his age, by his multifarious endowments of body and mind, and was the wonder, the boast, and the envy of his contemporaries. To conclude, had his means been equal to his abilities, or had his enterprising spirit, and his active, acute, and versatile mind been more under the guidance of judgment and discretion, his reign would have formed one of the most brilliant periods in Austrian history, and he would have been deservedly held up as the greatest sovereign of his time.'

In regard to the reigns of Maximilian and his predecessor, we consider Mr. Coxe as by far the best guide to whom the English reader can commit himself.

During the sway of Maximilian, began that grand revolution in religion which distinguished the commencement of the sixteenth century; and which, though it was a signal benefit, gave rise to calamities that scarcely ceased to afflict humanity till near the middle of the seventeenth. To this momentous event, Mr. Coxe has paid that attention which was due from a faithful historian, and a person of his profession. Indeed, this mighty change invites the attention of the philosopher and the statesman almost as strongly as that of the divine. Revolutions in the state of the human mind present more interest, and yield more instruction, than those which affect the arrangements of communities and empires, and which are the consequences of organized violence. The revolt from the Pope, and the expulsion of Aristotle from the schools, are ampler themes for observation and reflection than the fall of kingdoms; and the changes in religious faith and worship, wrought by Zuinglius, Luther, and Calvin, with those which were effected in philosophy by Bacon, Descartes, and Newton, more forcibly attract the cultivated mind, than the conquests of Alexander, Timur, or Napoleon: for, in this comparison, the revolutions operated by the devastators of the globe are coarse and vulgar matters.

The length to which this portion of the present article has extended will oblige us to confine ourselves to scanty extracts from this interesting and well executed part of the work. Some incidents, not generally to be found, induce us to copy the following passage:

'Martin Luther, the author of this extraordinary revolution, was the son of John Luther, a refiner of metals, and was born in 1483, at Eisleben, in Saxony. He acquired the first rudiments of learning in the house of his father, who having obtained a considerable share

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in the mines of Saxony, settled at Mansfield, where he became chief magistrate. He continued his studies in the universities of Eisenach and Magdeburgh, made a great proficiency in the Latin language, and, in 1501, repaired to the university of Erfurth, where he took the degree of master of arts. He intended to study the civil law, but was diverted from his purpose by the death of a friend, who was struck dead by lightning at his side. This awful event made a deep impression on his mind, naturally serious and devout; he retired, without the knowledge of his parents, into a monastery of Augustin friars at Erfurth, and assumed the habit of the order, in the twenty-second year of his age. During his residence in this monastery, he discovered a copy of the Latin Bible, which, at that period, was interdicted to the laity, and scarcely known to the clergy. His curiosity being stimulated by the discovery, he studied the sacred writings with extraordinary ardour and perseverance; and to this accident may be attributed his adoption of those opinions which produced the reformation, and the skill and success with which he defended his principles against the papal advocates. At length, the reputation which he acquired for sanctity and learning, induced Frederic the Wise, elector of Saxony, to appoint him a professor of philosophy in the new university of Wittemberg, at the recommendation of Staupitz, vicar general of the Augustin order; and the youthful professor justified the choice, by discarding both the form and expressions of the old scholastic system, and delivering lectures, which were fraught with unusual knowledge, with bold and novel opinions, and distinguished by perspicuity and eloquence.'

The succeeding reflections of the author on the great event in question are just in themselves, and becoming in a Protestant Clergyman:

'In reviewing this eventful period in the history of the world, we cannot repress a sentiment of wonder and veneration at the varied, contradictory, and seemingly trifling means which arrested the progress of error and licentiousness under the guise of religion, and restored purity of worship, and the doctrines of the Gospel, in all their primitive simplicity. We see a controversy arising from a single and inconsiderable question, and gradually expanding, till it embraced all the errors of the church; we see an obscure monk shaking off the prejudices of his age, profession, and nation, whose very defects of character and temper become instrumental in the promotion of truth; and though environed with all the terrors of papal and imperial authority, yet combating or averting the threatened dangers by intrepidity and prudence, or escaping from them by instances of good fortune almost miraculous; we observe the cause of the Gospel promoted and strengthened by those who were most interested and most inclined to oppose and oppress it; we observe the Reformation secured and established by the same prince who had brought it to the verge of destruction. By the impulse of the same motive we see the kings of France, while they persecuted their own protestant subjects, consolidating the league for the protection of those in Germany; the Turks, the enemies of Christendom, contributing to weaken and divide

divide its opponents; Charles himself stimulated by personal resentment or motives of policy to become the protector of that doctrine which it was the object of his whole reign to depress; and even the pope himself coming forward, at the most dangerous crisis, to join in a league against the interests of that church of which he was the head. We observe all these objects accomplished in the midst of contending parties and jarring interests, and even when the Protestants were divided, and actuated with scarcely less antipathy against each other than the Catholics against them. In reviewing all these stupendous revolutions, we cannot but acknowledge the wisdom of Providence, making the most opposite circumstances and the most hostile characters contribute to the same end, and turning to the accomplishment of his great purposes all the perverseness and caprice of human passions, and all the perplexed views of human policy.'

In this part of his undertaking, Mr. Coxe seems very much to tread in the track of the admirable Beausobre; who, to a consummate knowlege of his subject, added eminent judgment and taste, and in whom the comprehensive views of a philosopher were united with the charity of a christian.

The reign of Charles V. being so well known to the English reader, we shall omit all reference to Mr. Coxe's account of that prince's singular and eventful career; only observing that even those, who have not been prevented by Dr. Robertson from perusing the histories of Guicciardini and Sleidan, will not look in vain into Mr. C.'s volumes for information beyond that which may be found in those excellent performances.

Some of the subjects, on which the author necessarily treats, are of a most inspiring nature; and scarcely any writer has given an account of the Swiss struggles, without having his genius worked up to the highest pitch. Mr. Coxe's relations are an exception; and his narratives of these almost godlike efforts are remarkably tame as well as improperly concise. Yet it should be recollected that he has before sketched these scenes; and that these grand objects, having become familiar to him, were prevented from exciting in him the animation and the glow to which first views give rise. In the more interesting portions of the division of this history which we have been considering, the author may be compared with some of the most distinguished historians of this and other countries; and if he display not that consummate mastery which some of them manifest, still is he intitled with the great author of *the Spirit of Laws* to make use of the well known exclamation of the Italian painter,—*Io anche sono pittore.*

[*To be continued.*] Jo.

Art. II. *Illustrations of the scenery of Killarney and the surrounding country.* By Isaac Weld, Esq. M.R.I.A. 4to. pp. 230. and 19 Plates and Maps. 2l. 2s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

To the pre-eminent beauty of the lake of Killarney, all its visitors bear unanimous testimony; and it is extremely natural that the artist or the man of taste, who has amused himself with minutely examining and depicting its rich and romantic scenery, should project the renewal of his pleasure in attempting, by appropriate descriptions, aided by graphic skill, to convey his own delightful sensations to others. Unfortunately, however, language, with all its combinations and shadings of epithets, is inadequate to the full representation of Landscape; and even with the modern accompaniment of plates*, it very imperfectly executes its office. Descriptions purely picturesque, even when ably managed, soon become fatiguing to the reader; who cannot, by any combination of verbal expressions, be enabled to present to his imagination the exact prospect which the writer labours to delineate. Words may convey an idea of wood and water, of rocks and islands, of mountains and torrents, of indented shores, of projecting promontories, and indeed of all the striking characters of rich natural scenery: but from no verbal account could the actual spot which an author endeavours to represent be perfectly transferred to the canvas.

For these reasons, writers ought not to be too prolix in their details of rural scenery; and it appears to us that Mr. Weld has not been sufficiently considerate in the compilation of a great part of this volume: which, though relieved by episodes of anecdotes, history, antiquities, mineralogy, rural sports and occupations, &c. and embellished with numerous beautiful stroke-engravings, recounts the beauties of the lake

* Engravings, though they contribute to give a more distinct idea of particular spots than any purely verbal account can afford, are nevertheless defective in some respects. They may present us with an accurate outline, but they help us very imperfectly to form a notion of magnitude and distance. In some views of the lake of Geneva, Mont Blanc appears in the back ground: but this king of European mountains loses his superlative grandeur in the drawing, and is not sufficiently distinguished from other mountains which, from being nearer, subtend an equal visual angle. We must remember, also, that plates exhibit only portions of a landscape; and that we want the *panorama*, or the *periorama*, in order to have the full effect produced in nature. Still, however, the parcels of scenery which a series of plates exhibits, if they cannot afford the impression of a whole, furnish us with a tolerably exact notion of parts in detail.

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of Killarney with a minuteness which many persons will deem monotonous. Making the complete circuit of the upper, lower, and middle lakes, he notices every feature and character of their varied and intricate shores; enlarging on each portion of the diversified landscape, and endeavouring to inspire his readers with the same enthusiasm which he felt in the progress of his survey of this enchanting region.

We must allow, however, that Mr. Weld discovers good taste, and offers the result of his observation with great neatness and appropriateness of phrase; and if, in retracing his picturesque rambles round the lake, he be, as we have intimated, redundant, still he is generally amusing and often instructive. In the subjoined tour to the south-west coast of Ireland, many interesting particulars are inserted, respecting that region of the United Kingdom; particulars which are creditable to the Irish character, and demonstrate the great improvements which their Island is capable of receiving.

The work commences with a general description of the waters of Killarney, divided into the upper, middle (or Turk), and lower lakes:

'The Lake of Killarney is situated nearly in the centre of the maritime county of Kerry, on the confines of a chain of lofty mountains. The space included between this chain and the ocean, on the west, containing upwards of thirty square miles, is entirely occupied by other mountains of still greater magnitude, amongst which are those called Magillicuddy's reeks, computed to be the most elevated in Ireland. In general, the disposition of these mountains is very irregular; but, as they approach the sea, they form short ridges, terminating on the coast in bold and rugged headlands.

'This mountainous region abounds with lakes. They are mostly found in the depths of the valleys; but some are situated on the sides of the mountains, at a great elevation, in cavities resembling the craters of volcanos. The one known by the name of the Devil's Punch-bowl, near the summit of Mangerton, in the vicinity of Killarney, is at least fifteen hundred feet above the level of the sea; and after heavy rains discharges a large stream, which rolls down the mountain in a succession of cataracts, distinguishable by their white foam at the distance of many miles.

'Of these numerous lakes, the largest as well as the lowest is that of Killarney. It may be considered, indeed, an immense reservoir for the waters of the surrounding country, supplied by the overflowings of other lakes, by rills from the adjoining mountains, and by rivers which fall into it after having been augmented during their long course by countless tributary streams. The only outlet to this extensive basin is the clear and rapid river Laune, which conveys the surplus water into the Atlantic ocean through the bay of Dingle.

'Nor is Killarney less pre-eminent above all the other lakes of Kerry, on account of beauty than extent: for whilst the shores of

the latter bear no traces of cultivation, and are rarely distinguished by any striking features from the dreary wastes which surround them, its enchanting banks, singled out as it were by Nature for the display of some of her choicest productions, present the charming variety of a rich and adorned landscape, contrasted with the picturesque wildness of mountain and forest scenery.

'The lake consists of three distinct bodies of water. Of these, the first, which is called the upper lake, lies embosomed amidst the mountains: the others, situated at the exterior base of the chain, are bounded at one side alone by mountains; and in the opposite direction they open to a cultivated country, whose surface is diversified by innumerable hills. The two last divisions are nearly upon the same level, and lie contiguous to each other, being separated merely by a narrow peninsula, and some small islands, between which there are channels passable for boats; but the upper lake stands three miles distant, at the head of a navigable river which flows through a romantic valley or defile. Near the termination of its course, this river divides into two branches, one of which flows peaceably into the bay of Glena, on the great or lower lake; the other, forcing its mazy way through a rocky channel, issues with considerable impetuosity into the middle lake, under the woods of Dinis island.'

After this introductory view of the grand object to be explored, we are led through the whole in detail; are conducted to Mucruss; Turk island; the northern shore of the great lake; the river Flesk; Dunloh castle; Ross island; O'Sullivan's cascade; Mahony's point; Glena-bay; Brickeen and Dinis islands; the passage through the old weir bridge to the river which unites the upper and middle lakes; the Eagle's Nest; the upper lake; Ronayn's island, &c. &c.

In addition to the general account of the lake, Mr. Weld subjoins particular descriptions. At p. 124, the middle or Turk lake is thus delineated:

'The middle or Turk-lake is about two English miles in length, and somewhat less than one in breadth: it is bounded on the south by Turk-mountain, from which it derives its name, and on the opposite side by the woods and rocks of the peninsula of Mucruss. The mountain displays little varirty either in its water line or on its surface. It is marked by no bold precipices, by no glens; and, though it rises steeply from the lake, is in most parts easy of access; but the deep gloom which it spreads over the water at its base renders the scene extremely solemn. A large tract of this mountain has been lately planted by Colonel Herbert, which, when more advanced, will diversify the surface and adorn the landscape. The improvements of the same gentleman along the eastern shore appear to much advantage from the water.

'The peninsula on this side presents nearly the same aspect as on that washed by the lower lake. Its rocks are excavated in a similar manner by the attrition of the waves; but they have been more deeply undermined, and larger fragments of them have been detached, and precipitated

precipitated into the lake. Nearly opposite to the mines, an immense mass of rock and earth has fallen, which claims attention not less on account of its picturesque form, than the extraordinary mixture it exhibits of various mineral substances. Devil's-island is not less an object of curiosity; though now considerably distant from the shore, it appears evidently to have once formed a part of the peninsula.

'Such striking instances of the powerful operation of the waves on this side of the peninsula, would lead to a supposition that Turk was exposed to more frequent and more violent storms than the lower lake; for the stone is nearly of the same quality. The fact, however, is directly opposite to this; for the same winds which disturb the former, also affect the latter; whereas it frequently happens that the lower lake is much agitated, when the waters of Turk remain sheltered, and present a smooth unruffled surface.'

We find also a detail of the beauties of the upper lake, which in picturesque scenery surpasses both the others:

'The upper lake is situated in the midst of a stupendous amphitheatre of mountains, and displays the most wild and romantic scenery. Its length is nearly the same as that of Turk, its breadth somewhat inferior. The mountains which bound it on each side are a continuation of those of the defile, and are characterized by similar features; but they are much loftier, and their parts are all on a grander scale: the glens are deeper; the woods more extensive, and of older growth; the rivers larger; and the falls more lofty and precipitate. The mountains situated at the upper extremity of the lake are the most elevated, as well as the most varied in their outline; amongst which Magillycuddy's reeks rise pre-eminent in grandeur above all the rest. They are seen, as already described, from the lower lake; but their appearance on this side is so very different, that they would scarcely be recognised for the same. Instead of an assemblage of conical peaks, they here display a long craggy ridge, which seems to be reduced like a wedge to a very narrow breadth, at the summit; and, on ascending, it is found not to be less narrow than it appears from below. Their height is about three thousand feet, and they are seldom unobscured by clouds; a circumstance which contributes to render their aspect, at times, peculiarly sublime.' *

Many curious particulars are interwoven with this picturesque narrative. The Abbey of Irrelagh, being a favourite place of burial, introduces a digression on the funerals of the Irish; the view of Ross-castle affords an opportunity of narrating the circumstances of its siege and capture by the parliament army; that of O'Donoghoe's prison excites Mr. W. to relate the legendary tale of the antient prince of that name; and that of

* Our readers will recollect, and may compare with the preceding descriptions, Sir Rd. Hoare's late account of the same scenes; M.R. for September last, p. 57, &c.

Innisfallen furnishes a plea for observations on the antient state of Ireland, its monastic institutions, and early Irish manuscripts. Of the latter, Mr. W. mentions two, one called *the Book of Ballymote*, and the other *the Annals of the Four Masters;* which had partly been translated under the direction of the Royal Irish Academy, but, on making the discovery that the mass of legendary fictions exceeded that which bore the characters of genuine history, the translation was discontinued. We give a specimen of the contents of these MSS.

'*The Book of Ballymote* commences with an account of the creation, and represents the Deity at a loss to find a name for the newly created man. Four angels are dispatched to the four quarters of the universe, each of whom returns with the name of a particular star. The initial letters of the names of the four stars are put together, and the man is called A-D-A-M.

'*The Annals of the Four Masters*, so called from having been compiled by four monks of Donegal, about the year 1636, from the most esteemed and ancient histories of Ireland that were then extant, begin, like the Book of Ballymote, with an account of the first inhabitants of the globe. They narrate with much precision the story of a small tribe, descended from one of the sons of Noah, which departs from Scythia in quest of the land furthest to the west, which is supposed to have been promised to their tribe in a prophecy. After passing through Egypt, the adventurers embark for Crete; thence they proceed along the shores of Africa to Spain, in which last country they settle, under a belief that there was no land more westward. Here they build a very lofty tower on the sea-shore, with a city called Brigantium. After remaining for three generations, however, in Spain, the chief of the tribe, on a remarkably clear tranquil evening, descries from the summit of the tower the coast of Ireland, still further to the west. The error being thus discovered, it is immediately determined to leave Spain: a fleet is prepared; the whole tribe embarked; and having arrived safely in Ireland, that country, on minute investigation, confirmed by numberless portentous signs, is ascertained to be really the promised land.'

Not merely the stationary scenery of the lake, but its accidental varieties and peculiarities are noticed by Mr. Weld; who expatiates on the effects of a humid atmosphere on the scenery, on the agitations of the water produced by hurricanes and torrents of air from the surrounding mountains, on an extraordinary phænomenon sometimes visible at sun-set, and on singular echoes by which the traveller is astonished. The optical illusion is thus represented:

'Occasionally an effect is produced by the setting sun, on the range of mountains bounding the lake, not less beautiful than rare, and totally differing from what I remember to have seen in other mountainous countries; though doubtless, in particular situations, the same appearance may result from the variations of the atmosphere.

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I can only attempt to give an idea of it by describing it as displaying the mountains in a transparent state, and suffused with a lively purple hue. Varying however from the aërial aspect of distant mountains, all the objects upon them, rocks, woods, and even houses, are distinctly visible,—more so, indeed, than at noon day; whilst at the same time their forms appear so unsubstantial, so ethereal, that one might almost fancy it possible to pass through them without resistance. I happened to be alone when I first witnessed this singular and beautiful phænomenon; and having communicated it to some friends who were with me at Killarney, we several times walked down to the lake when the state of the atmosphere seemed propitious; but being frequently disappointed in our hopes of beholding it, my description began to pass for the mere creation of fancy: at last, however, the mountains put on this magical aspect, and incredulity instantly gave place to admiration and delight. This appearance is very transient, continuing only for about ten minutes, whilst the sun approaches the earth and is sinking below the horizon. The mountains on which it is observable are Tomies, and those which lie next in the chain towards the west.'

Though the singular echoes in one part of the lake of Killarney have often been mentioned, their effects have never perhaps been more fully displayed than by Mr. Weld:

'It is scarcely in the power of language to convey an adequate idea of the extrordinary effect of the echoes under this cliff, whether they repeat the dulcet notes of music, or the loud discordant report of a cannon. Enchantment here appears to have resumed her reign, and those who listen are lost in amazement and delight.

'To enjoy the echoes to the utmost advantage, it is necessary that a number of musicians should be placed on the banks of the river, about fifty yards below the base of the cliff; while the auditors, excluded from their view, seat themselves on the opposite bank, at some distance above the cliff, behind a small rocky projection. Were a stranger conducted hither ignorant of this arrangement, and unprepared by any previous description for the illusory effect of the echo, I am persuaded he would be unable to form a tolerable conjecture, as to the source of the sounds, or the number of the instruments. The primary notes are quite lost; whilst those which are reverberated meet the ear increased in strength, in brilliancy, and in sweetness. Sometimes it might be supposed that multitudes of musicians, playing upon instruments formed for more than mortal use, were concealed in the caverns of the rock; or behind the trees on different parts of the cliff; at others, when a light breeze favours the delusion, it seems as if they were hovering in the air. At intervals the treble sounds of flutes and clarionets,

In sweet vibration thrilling o'er the skies,

are alone heard; and then again, after a short suspension,

The clanging horns swell their sweet winding notes,
. . . . and load the trembling air
With various melody.

But notwithstanding the occasional swell and predominance of certain instruments, the measure of the melody is not impaired, nor do the notes come confusedly to the ear: the air which is played should, however, be very slow, and the harmony simple, affording a frequent repetition of perfect chords.

'When the music has subsided, whilst every auditor still remains in a state of breathless admiration, it is usual to discharge a cannon from the promontory opposite to the cliff, which never fails to startle, and to stun the ear, ill prepared as it must be for the shock, after dwelling upon the sweet melody which has preceded it. The report of the gun produces a discordant crash, as if the whole pile of rocks were rent asunder; and the succeeding echoes resemble a tremendous peal of thunder. During a favourable state of the atmosphere, upon which much depends, twelve reverberations, and sometimes more, may be distinctly counted; and what appears extraordinary, after the sound has been totally lost, it occasionally revives, becomes louder and louder for a few seconds, and then again dies away.

'Now seems it far and now anear,
Now meets, and now eludes the ear;
Now seems some mountain's side to sweep,
Now dies away in valley deep.'

Besides the map of Killarney, the general view of the lower lakes, (an outline,) and vignettes containing views from the Green Hills and the Rocks from Mahony's point, we have the following distinct engravings, which are reputable to the artists Landseer, Middiman, Smith, Storer, Greig, and the late Mr. Byrne: viz. South-east and South-west views of Mucruss abbey—Flesk bridge—Dunloh castle—Ross castle—views from Ross bay and Ross island—Glena bay—view under Dinis island—River between the lakes—the Eagle's Nest—view on the upper lake—cottage on Ronayn's island—and the upper lake from D°.

Quitting the level surface of the lake, Mr. Weld enters on the sublime occupation of climbing mountains, visiting the summits of Magillicuddy's reeks, and those of Gheraun-tuel and Mangerton mountains. In his descent from the latter, he encountered some danger, being suddenly enveloped in a thick mist, which is not unusual on those heights: but, following a rill, he at last reached the plain, and arrived safe at the neat little town of Killarney. Hence he makes an excursion to *Kilmallock*, which he describes as the Balbec or Palmyra of Ireland and he bestows a page or two on the account of its ruins.

The last section of this work exhibits details of the author's tour to the South Western coast, which include short notices respecting Cork, Kinsale, the Wicklow gold mine, Skibbereen, Baltimore, Cape-Clear Island, Crookhaven, Bantry, Reen, Bearehaven, Dursey Island, and Nedheen. A glance at th

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map of this portion of the Irish coast discovers its beautiful indentations, by which it promises to afford to shipping the finest harbours; and when we read also of its bold and stupendous rocks, of its deep and transparent waters even close to the land, and of its woods in some places hanging over the shore so as to come in contact with the yards of vessels, we must be impressed with a persuasion not only of its superlative charms in the eye of the picturesque traveller, but of the advantages which such a country is capable of affording to a commercial people. Moy.

ART. III. *A Chronological History of the Voyages and Discoveries in the South Sea or Pacific Ocean.* Part II. From the Year 1579 to the Year 1620. Illustrated with Charts and other Plates. By James Burney, Captain in the Royal Navy. 4to. pp. 490. 1l. 14s. Boards. Nicol and Son, &c. 1806.

AFTER due time, we are furnished with the second volume of Captain Burney's History of Discoveries in the South Sea. Our readers will recollect that the author, having proposed a convenient classification of the general History of Discoveries into six parts, has himself undertaken that division, in which opportunity had rendered him peculiarly competent to act both the historian and the annotator of early discovery; he himself having sailed with Captain Cook in his last two voyages.

In his former publication, Captain Burney very well illustrated his own remarks on the compression of a subject as distinct from injurious abridgment; and those who peruse the second volume will have to admire the continuance of this most useful discrimination, by which no remark of importance to Geography or Navigation is passed unnoticed, nor any incident characteristic either of the several voyagers or of the people discovered is omitted. Indeed, the original accounts, on which Capt. B. has almost exclusively founded his history, are not very voluminous; few of them having been written for the public eye. At present, we too often meet with large histories of voyages of little moment, as if the advantage of the bookseller were more consulted than that of the public.

Captain Burney having closed his first volume with the famous voyage of Sir Francis Drake, who returned to England in 1580, he commences his second with relating the consequences of an enterprise naturally so alarming to the Spanish settlements in South America, which had now become highly important to the mother country. The Viceroy

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of Peru had in vain dispatched Pedro Sarmiento from Callao in pursuit of Drake; and on the return of the ships so employed, Sarmiento was sent to examine the Strait of Magalhanes, with the view of fortifying the only passage to the South Sea then known. The instructions under which Sarmiento sailed are here given, and appear singularly judicious: according to them the Journal of the voyage was written, and preserved with unusual care; and it furnishes an excellent document of the state of navigation in the 16th century: for which, and for geographical information, this voyage is chiefly remarkable. Capt. B. has inserted specimens of the Journal (p. 7.), and has furnished in his usual manner some useful remarks on the geography, illustrated by a particular chart. An attempt, perhaps the earliest recorded, to ascertain the longitude at sea by lunar observation, occurs in the latter part of this voyage.

Sarmiento, sailing from Lima with two ships, commenced his examination before he arrived at the Strait of Magalhanes, by penetrating the intricate Gulf of Santissima Trinidad, situated north of the western entrance; and here he persevered a long time, but without success, in seeking a junction with the Strait. On leaving the Gulf of Trinidad, he was deserted by one of his ships; which circumstance, however, did not prevent him from entering the Strait of Magalhanes, where he pursued the prescribed examination with great industry for a full month. Two places near the eastern entrance of the Strait seemed to him well adapted for defending the passage, and he hastened to Europe to make this representation to the Spanish government.

It sometimes happens even to calm and judicious men, when employed to examine the expediency of a favourite project, that their expectations are not realized when the experiment is tried. Sarmiento earnestly recommended that the Strait should be fortified, and that suitable colonies should be settled there; and this proposal, though strenuously opposed by the duke of Alba and others, was adopted from an apprehension that otherwise the English would anticipate the Spaniards in this measure.

In 1581, the most powerful armament, which up to that time had been sent to America, consisting of twenty-three ships, and conveying 3500 men, sailed from Seville. A part of this force was destined for the colony of the Strait, under the command of Sarmiento; and so fully was the mind of the Spanish monarch (Philip II.) occupied on fortifying the Strait, that the whole of this large fleet were ordered to sail thither to assist in establishing the intended colony before they proceeded to their ulterior destination. Never was an expe-

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dition more disastrous from its outset to its conclusion: five of the ships were wrecked on the coast of Spain; owing to subsequent losses and desertions, no more than five ships entered the Strait of Magalhanes, which they did not accomplish till February 1584, two years and a half after their departure from Spain; and of these five ships, one was immediately wrecked on the coast of Patagonia, and three deserted Sarmiento, who was then left with only his own ship. The intended colonists had been landed to the number of 400 men and 30 women, and two towns were marked out by Sarmiento. He himself, however, was driven from the Strait by stress of weather at the end of May; and the colony was left in a situation almost destitute, the repeated efforts of Sarmiento to supply their wants proving ineffectual. In the following March, 1585, he sailed reluctantly for Spain, but was taken in his passage by the English.

Sarmiento had certainly represented the Strait as narrower than in reality it is, but his general conduct was that of a stedfast and careful commander, however unfortunate. The dismal catastrophe of his colony was known only from subsequent voyages of foreigners through the Strait.—Capt. B. remarks on this cruel negligence of the Spanish government, and on the project of Sarmiento, in a strain admirably judicious:

'The Spanish writers term this expedition the most disastrous of any which to that time had been sent by their nation to the *Strait of Magalhanes*. They might have added, likewise, the most discreditable to their nation, for the negligence and indifference with which their countrymen in the *Strait* were suffered to perish.

'At the time the Spaniards undertook to fortify the passage of the *Strait*, the probability of a passage to the South of the *Tierra del fuego* had been surmised, but without obtaining a degree of credit that could make it a consideration of much weight. The *Strait* continued to be regarded as the key to the *Pacific Ocean*, the exclusive possession of which, if attainable, was certainly a desirable object to the Spaniards. Sarmiento, the great advocate for the plan, and who rested his reputation upon its success, had, as already shewn, under-rated the distance of the opposite shores of the *Strait* from each other; but it is not to be doubted that if the settlement had prospered, the ships of other European nations would have been deterred from those enterprises to the *South Sea*, which almost immediately followed the knowlege of Sarmiento's failure. The contrast arising from these enterprises furnishes argument little favourable to human nature, and too strongly evinces that the best motives are not the most powerful springs of action. Whilst the Spaniards were unmoved by the distressed condition of their countrymen, and readily resigned themselves to the belief that

all attempts to relieve them must be vain, the seamen of other nations, allured by the love of gold, with the greatest alacrity opposed themselves to the dangers which deterred the Spaniards from the better cause.

'The reproach, however, does not, properly speaking, attach to the Spanish nation, but to the individuals who at that time held the powers of government.'

Among the first of those whom the love of Spanish wealth led to follow the steps of Drake through the Strait, was Mr. Thomas Cavendish, an Englishman, who sailed from Plymouth with three small vessels in 1586. After having touched on the coast of Africa and at St. Sebastian, he discovered and entered the harbour on the coast of Patagonia, called Port Desire, and remained there ten days. Leaving this port, on the evening of the eighth day he anchored near the eastern entrance of the Strait; and while he lay at this anchorage, lights were seen on the shore during the night, which were answered from the ship. The next morning, Cavendish himself went to the shore in a boat, and saw three Spaniards, part of the remnant of Sarmiento's colony. These men made some difficulty in trusting themselves with the English: but one of them at last embarked in the boat, and the two others were sent for their associates, whose number had been by sickness and famine reduced to fifteen, twelve men and three women:

'When the General* arrived on board, he found the wind favourable for advancing up the *Strait*; upon which, without any waiting, he ordered the anchors to be taken up, and the ships immediately sailed forward, leaving the wretched remains of the Spanish colony with this cruel disappointment, added to their other miseries, and utterly abandoned of man, both friend and foe.

'With respect to the conduct of Mr. Cavendish on this occasion, it is to be remarked, that the passage of the *Strait* was at that time, with great reason, regarded as extremely precarious and uncertain; the examples of failure in the attempt, even after entrance within the *Strait* had been gained, were numerous. In warfare, there are many cases wherein, by the general practice of the world, the dictates of humanity are not allowed to influence the operations of hostility. If Cavendish, by stopping to take on board the remnant of the Spanish garrison, had missed his passage and been forced to return home, it is far from certain that the disappointment of his expectations and those of his followers would have been compensated by the approbation of his countrymen, or that he would have stood acquitted in the general opinion of the world for having so sacrificed the success of his undertaking, and convert-

* i e. Mr. Cavendish, it being customary in that age to give this title to commanders by sea as well as by land.

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ed to the benefit, what had been intended for the annoyance, of the enemy. From these considerations it may be argued, that the English, in not staying to relieve the Spanish colonists, did not act in a manner repugnant to the general practice of the most civilized nations.

'On the other hand, it may be observed, that the time necessary for taking these people on board could scarcely have exceeded two or three hours, as it is most probable that they would have been all waiting in readiness to embark by the time that boats could have gone to them from the ships. Considering the shortness of the required detention, the extraordinary hardships they had endured, and their extreme distress, it must excite some wonder that the claims of humanity did not prevail for their preservation. The best apology that can be offered for the conduct of the English on this occasion, is, that they could not foresee, or reasonably imagine, that relief would not be sent to the Spaniards from their own country.'

The Spaniard who embarked with the English took the earliest opportunity of escaping from them on the coast of Chili. His declaration, which was afterward published in Spain, and a summary of which is given by Capt. B., is an affecting narrative of the gradual destruction of Sarmiento's colonists by cold and want. They appear to have been injudiciously selected for the purpose, having among them neither seamen nor fishermen: for, as a proof of the possibility of obtaining food, at this very time, the English under Cavendish procured a supply of provisions in the Strait by catching and salting Penguins.

Cavendish, having entered the south sea, proceeded up the coast of Chili, committing and receiving various injuries. Near the south Cape of California, he was so fortunate as to fall in with a rich ship from the Philippine Islands, and captured her after a stout resistance. This proved a valuable prize; since they took out of her "122,000 pesos of gold," and about forty tons of valuable merchandise. The remainder of the cargo, about 500 tons, they burnt in the ship, having previously landed the crew; who, however, after the departure of the English, found means to embark on the remains of the bottom of their vessel, and to reach New Spain.

On leaving California, Cavendish lost his remaining consort, the smallest of his vessels having been previously destroyed. In his own ship, the Desire, he proceeded on his voyage, touching at St. Helena, and arrived at Plymouth two years and fifty days after his departure from that place.

'This is generally reckoned the third circumnavigation of the globe, which is correct in respect to the ship in which Mr. Cavendish sailed; and she performed the tour in a shorter space of time than either of her predecessors.

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'The enterprise of Mr. Cavendish had great advantage over the more early ones of the English in the *Pacific Ocean*, in being legally authorised. In the conduct of it, the Commander was sometimes wanting in prudence and vigilance, but the activity and courage displayed by him are conspicuous, and his success has established the reputation of his undertaking. The acts of waste and outrage wantonly committed by him without the smallest shew of remorse, shew equally a rooted hatred against the Spaniards, and a disposition naturally cruel. On his return to England, he addressed a letter to Lord Hunsdon, the Lord Chamberlain, in which is the following boast: 'I navigated along the coast of *Chili*, *Peru*, 'and *Nueva Espanna*, where I made great spoiles: I burnt and 'sunk 19 sailes of ships, small and great. All the villages and 'towns that ever I landed at, I burnt and spoiled.'

'The voyage of Mr. Cavendish was not entirely unproductive of advantage to Geography. The only discovery, however, of any importance which can be attributed to him, is that of the harbour named by him *Port Desire*, on the east coast of *Patagonia*. The nautical Remarks and Notes by Mr. Thomas Fuller must have given useful information to the navigators of that time. They consist of a list of latitudes of many of the capes, bays, and other parts of coast seen during the voyage; some account of the soundings; with the bearings and distances of different points of land from each other.'

Merick's voyage, which immediately succeeded that of Cavendish, is remarkable from the incident of taking on board the only person who remained alive of Sarmiento's colony: but the ship's crew being weakened and discontented, they sailed back from the Strait to Europe; and this Spaniard, the sole survivor of six years' hardships, perished in the distresses of the homeward voyage, with all the crew excepting four.

Cavendish himself, in 1591, sailed on a second voyage with five vessels. He appears to have expended too much time on the coast of Brasil, in consequence of which he did not arrive at the Strait till the middle of April: he there encountered adverse winds, and a severe winter; and after having remained there during a month, he became so much dispirited that he sailed homeward, but died in the passage. This voyage would be little worthy of notice, had not the persevering determination of Capt. John Davis, who commanded one of Cavendish's ships, prompted him to part company with his leader, with the intention of resuming the original design of the voyage. Shortly after this separation, the Islands at present called Falkland's Islands were discovered by Davis: to whose memory, as a seaman and a discoverer, Capt. B. has rendered justice:

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'In this manner was it the fortune of Captain John Davis, who had before distinguished himself by three several attempts to discover a North West Passage, and had penetrated into the arm of the sea between *Greenland* and the American coast (named after its Discoverer *Davis's Strait*) as far as to $72\frac{1}{4}°$ N, to be the first Discoverer of the Islands which have since been successively distinguished by the different appellations of *Hawkins's Maiden-land*, the *Sebaldines*, *Falkland Islands*, the *Malouines*, and *Isles Nouvelles*, whilst the knowledge of the original Discovery seems to have passed immediately into oblivion*, though the fact has been preserved where it had a fair chance of obtaining notice. As the name given, at first incorrectly, to this groupe of Islands has undergone so many changes equally unjust, one more change seems necessary to set the matter right: and therefore when there is again occasion to mention them in this work, the name of *Davis's Southern Islands* will be adopted.'

Davis passed through the Strait into the South Sea, but did not succeed in making farther progress, being driven back by repeated storms; and returning homewards, he at last reached Beerhaven in a miserable condition.

It is a strong proof of the practical utility of the work before us, that Byron, in 1764, from ignorance of this voyage, made a most erroneous conjecture concerning the extent of the river of Port Desire, which Davis in 1592 had penetrated as far as it is navigable. (See P. 105.)

The chapter which next follows contains an examination of the voyage said to have been made by Juan de Fuca, a Greek pilot: the relation of whose discoveries has been a subject of much disquisition among geographers. Capt. B. thus delivers his opinion:

'Against the validity of the foregoing Relation, it is objected that no Spanish author of that time has spoken of De Fuca, or of his discoveries: neither has any such name or any circumstance of such a discovery been found in the *Archivo General de Indias* at *Seville*, which was searched in 1802, for that special purpose. The Relation, therefore, having rested solely on the hearsay evidence of Mr. Michael Lok, has been wholly rejected by many.

'On the other side, it is to be remarked that Michael Lok is not a fictitious name or character: he had been Consul at *Aleppo* for the English merchants trading to Turkey, a station of sufficient publicity for the person who filled it to have been easily ascertained at the time the account was published by *Purchas* (A. D. 1625). There is, likewise, at this time extant, an English translation, published in 1612, of the last five Decades of P. Martyr, done by Michael Lok, who it may be supposed was the same person, the name not being common, and the subject treated of being Ameri-

'* The Geographical Dictionaries and Grammars have attributed the discovery to Sir Richard Hawkins.'

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can Discoveries. The discoveries which have been made in our own time have produced a powerful argument in favour of the reality of De Fuca's voyage. A Strait has been found to exist on the West coast of America, near the 48th degree of North latitude, from which many large and deep channels lead in almost every direction: and it appears extremely improbable, indeed not easily conceivable, that mere fancy or conjecture should chance upon the description of a Strait so essentially corresponding with the reality as in the passage following: — finding 'a broad inlet of sea between 47 and '48 degrees of latitude, he entered thereinto, sailing therein 'more than twenty days, and found that land trending still some-'time NW and NE, and North, and also East and South East-'ward.' That the land was rich of gold and silver might have been supposed from seeing veins of mineral in the earth. Many similar assertions are to be found in the accounts of the early discoverers (in other respects true), made with no better foundation. The width of the entrance of the Strait cannot be reconciled: but, with respect to the exaggerations, it has been properly remarked, that the account is not immediately from De Fuca, and might have gathered circumstances in the transmission. Some of our most able Geographers give credit to the reality of Juan de Fuca's Voyage, without extending their belief to all the particulars of the account; and the Strait which has been found on the West side of America, in 48° 25′ N, is at present distinguished by the name of *Entrance* or *Strait of Juan de Fuca*.'

The ill fortune of Cavendish, in his second voyage, did not encourage his countrymen to this sort of adventures; and during the remainder of the reign of Elizabeth, Sir Richard Hawkins was the only Englishman who sailed on similar motives to the South Sea. He has left his narrative of the voyage, which was designed for the mixed purposes of discovery, plunder, and commerce. He departed with three vessels in 1593; and, in crossing the Bay of Biscay, he introduces some remarks concerning the customs observed in his time, between English ships of war and those of foreign powers meeting in times of peace in the narrow seas:

'In our seas,' Sir Richard says, 'if a stranger fleet meet with any 'of her Majesties ships, the foreigners are bound to take in their 'flags, or her Majesties ships to force them to it, though thereof 'follow the breach of peace, or whatsoever discommodity.' Sir Richard adds, 'And whosoever should not be jealous in this point, 'he is not worthy to have the command of a Cock-boat committed unto him.'

'In Queen Maries reign, King Philip of Spain coming to marry 'with the Queen, and meeting with the Royal Navy of England, the Lord William Howard, High Admiral of England, 'would not consent, that the King in the narrow seas should 'carry his flag displayed, untill he came into the harbour of '*Plymouth*.'

Sir Richard obtained refreshment on the Coast of Brasil, where he unloaded and burnt one of his small vesssels, and the other deserted him. He afterward saw the Islands discovered by Davis in the year before: but apparently being ignorant of that discovery, he named them *Hawkins's Maiden Land*, and did not visit them very closely. He had a prosperous passage through the Strait, and committed some trifling pillage along the coast of Chili: but his force was too small to attempt any object of importance. A Spanish armament being sent out from Lima to attack him, he at first escaped through accidents which befell his pursuers: but, as he loitered near the coast, they again came up with him, and succeeded in capturing him, after a long action aukwardly fought by the Spaniards, few of whom probably were seamen.

Sir R. Hawkins's narrative contains much miscellaneous information, which will be of value when the successive improvements of shipping, especially of the British Navy, and of navigation, shall find an historian. The distillation of fresh-water from salt-water was then known, and was practised by Hawkins during his voyage; and he also describes a curious mode of discharging arrows from muskets, which was adopted with great effect.—Sir R. H. appears to have committed the egregious absurdity of going out with hostile purposes, in a ship which was outsailed on every occasion: yet her appearance must have been promising, since she received her name "*The Dainty*," from the royal lips of Elizabeth.

The next voyage commemorated by Capt. Burney is that of Alvaro de Mendana, who had in 1567 discovered the Salomon Islands, and was sent out in 1595 with four vessels, for the purpose of there settling a colony. Pedro Fernandez de Quiros, afterward celebrated for his own discoveries, sailed as Pilot with Mendana. In this second voyage, he had the good fortune to find another groupe of Islands, which he called the Marquesas, and at one of which he remained about a week. The inhabitants are described by Quiros as being a very fine race of people, but they did not escape without sustaining injury from the Spaniards, whose commander appears to have been destitute not only of authority but of nautical skill; insomuch that when the Marquesas were first descried, he believed them to be the Salomon Islands, though he had not sailed half their distance from the coast of Peru. He was accompanied by his wife, the lady Ysabel, and three Priests; and he appears to have been frequently influenced by them in his decisions. From the Marquesas, he continued to sail on the known parallel of the Salomon Islands, with the

confident expectation of finding them in three or four days: but they proceeded for a whole month without seeing these Islands:

'On September the 7th, the wind (still from the SE) blew fresh, and they sailed due West, under the foresail only. The horizon before them was obscured by thick clouds; on which account the chief pilot (Quiros) ordered the galiot and the frigate to keep a-head in sight of the ships, and of each other, and they were particularly instructed what signals to make if they should see land or breakers. But in the evening, after it became dark, the commanders of the galiot and frigate being strongly apprehensive of danger, were afraid to preserve the station appointed them, and both their vessels dropped astern. With all this doubt, without advanced guard, and under such alarming appearances, the navigation was most improvidently and unaccountably continued; for since Mendana first reckoned they were near the *Salomon Islands*, they had sailed many hundred leagues, it may be said in hourly expectation of falling in with them, keeping constantly in a parallel which left no chance that they should be missed, and every additional hour gave reason to strengthen expectation: but, as if by some perverse infatuation, the opposite effect seems to have been produced, and expectation to have been worn out by being so long on the stretch, and by a continuance of disappointment, which, doubtless to Mendana, was incomprehensible.

'The ships, as before related, kept on their course. About 9 at night, the account says, the Almiranta was seen, meaning, as appears by the sequel, that she was not seen after that hour. At 11, on the larboard [left] hand was observed a large black cloud, which wholly darkened that part of the horizon. Those who had the watch were doubtful if it was not land, but their doubts were soon removed, for the cloud approached with a torrent of rain, and as soon as it was past, land was clearly discerned at scarcely a league distance. The Capitana hauled upon a wind, and made signals to the other vessels. Answers were received from two only, and nothing was seen or heard from the third.'

The Island thus discovered was named Santa Cruz by Mendana; and, after some consideration, he determined to settle the colony on it; being principally induced to this resolution by the friendship of a native chief named Malopé: but, such was the unruly conduct of the Spaniards, that this advantage was destroyed by a melancholy catastrophe, related by Captain B. with that feeling and propriety which, on such occasions, we never fail to find in his writings:

'Affairs were in this state, not unfavourable to the views of Mendana, when some of the Spanish soldiers, in what manner instigated does not appear, killed the venerable chief Malopé, and two or three other Islanders, with whom the Spaniards were then at peace. Thus lightly and unworthily was bereaved of life, a Prince who was found by the European discoverers in the peaceable enjoyment of the

the affection and respect of his people: 'Malopé, the Indian friend of the Adelantado, from whom the Spaniards had received so much kindness.' 'Malopé,' says Quiros, 'our greatest friend and Lord of the Island!' His death was greatly lamented, and with much reason, by all the Spaniards, except the assassins, and especially by the Adelantado. As to the natives, they were inconsolable. They wept aloud for his loss, and mourned incessantly, both in public and in private, many days. Whilst Malopé lived, it may be said, that among the Islanders, the Spaniards had both friends and enemies; but after his death, one sentiment was general, and they all thirsted for vengeance. The first consequence which was severely felt by the Spaniards, was the stoppage of all supplies of provisions and refreshments. Mendana, ever ready to punish the aggressions of the Indians, found too late the evil of not restraining his own people. The guilty authors of this misfortune were punished with death, which example it was hoped would mitigate the resentment of the Islanders, but they remained irreconcileable.'

The Spaniards now became sickly; and among some of the first who died, was Mendana himself. His character is here shortly but significantly given: 'The name of Alvaro de Mendana ranks high as a discoverer: to this celebrity he is entitled, inasmuch as every man whom Fortune favours is entitled to her gifts. His merits as a Navigator, or as a Commander, have not contributed towards rendering him conspicuous, and it is remarked in Figueroa, that his death was lamented only by his relations and his favourites.' — He appointed his wife to be his successor in the command of the fleet; and under her, Don Lorenzo Berreto, her brother, to be General: but he also soon died of a wound, received in a skirmish with the natives; after which the Lady Ysabel, with the remaining Spaniards, abandoned the Colony in despair, and sailed for the Philippine Islands. Thus terminated this badly conducted voyage; from which, however, geographical knowlege derived much accession.

At the end of this narration, Capt. B. has entered into an examination of the particulars concerning the navigation which the Spanish accounts have transmitted to us, for the purpose of settling the positions of those Islands discovered in this Voyage, which have not been since recognized by Europeans; and the Track sailed by Mendana in his second Voyage is described on a Chart which fronts the title to this volume.

[*To be continued.*] Rick.

ART. IV. *Some Account of Dr. Gall's new theory of Physiognomy*, founded upon the Anatomy and Physiology of the Brain, and the form of the Skull. With the Critical Strictures of C. W. Hufeland, M. D. 8vo. pp. 190. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

MEDICAL readers are no strangers to the new theory of Dr. Gall of Vienna, the object of which is to shew that different mental operations are performed by distinct and appropriate organs of the brain; that the relative strength and acuteness of these organs vary in different individuals; and that their existence may be known from observations made on the external shape of the head. It appears that, in Germany, the doctrine has met with many followers, whereas in England it has seldom been noticed, except with the view of turning it into ridicule. Of this propensity in his countrymen, the translator of the present volume loudly complains, and, as we are disposed to admit, with a certain degree of justice; for although we can scarcely imagine that the hypothesis has any real foundation, yet, as the proposer of it is a man of respectable character, and has made a strong impression on the minds of his auditors, it is but candid to give him a fair hearing.

Chapter I. offers some observations on the structure of the brain, and the relation of its different parts to each other. We shall not, however, dwell on this portion of the work, because it consists of speculations which are too minute to be fully stated in our limits, and is not essentially connected with the peculiarities of Dr. Gall's theory. In order to prevent any misconception respecting it, we shall give the fundamental positions in the words of the author. 'Each circumvolution of nerve in the cerebrum is to be considered as the nerve or organ of some certain operation of mind: hence, each internal operation, as well as each external sense, has its own peculiar nerve and organ; and hence the brain is not *one* organ of the soul, not a common organ for all the functions of the mind, but a receptacle for distinct organs.' These positions are supported by the three following arguments: First, the sense of fatigue which the mind experiences, on being devoted for a length of time to one object, and the relief which it feels from variety; a circumstance that is regarded as analogous to similar facts in the case of the muscles and joints: Secondly, the diversity which we actually observe in the different mental powers; and Thirdly, the effect produced on the brain by partial diseases, or by wounds of its substance, the consequence of which has been the diminution of certain

certain faculties only, without the others receiving any injury. These three are regarded as presumptive arguments; and a still farther postulate must be admitted, 'that whenever any organ is met with in a higher state of developement, there we may expect to find the power dependent on it, in corresponding energy.'

So far, we have stated the foundation on which the doctrines of *craniology* rest; we now come to the other part of the hypothesis, which has received the name of *cranioscopy.* The fundamental position of this part we shall, as before, give our readers in the words of the writer: '*The internal lamina or plate of the brain-pan or skull is, during the life of man, perpetually formed by the brain itself; and therefore where the internal and external plates of the skull run parallel, we may infer the form of the brain from the outward shape of the skull.*' It is obvious that this position is essential to the theory of Dr. Gall; and on this account his commentator devotes a whole chapter to the proof of it. He infers its truth from the progress of the ossification of the cranium, and from the examination of different skulls; in which it seemed that the bones easily yielded to pressure from within, and were modelled in consequence of some accidental circumstance changing the figure of the brain. He farther adds that the inner table of the skull is immediately generated from the brain itself; and that, while it is in its soft state, it must necessarily take the form of the part from which it is produced.

After these preliminary points, we are next led to inquire what are the different faculties of which the brain is possessed; or rather, what are the different organs that we may suppose we shall find in examining its substance. It is remarked that we are not to expect any organ for those talents or capacities which are the result of a number of united powers, such as those which form the poet or the astronomer; nor distinct organs for those faculties which are common to all the mental powers, and which differ only in degree, as memory, judgment, imagination, &c.—We are next directed how we are to proceed in our cranioscopical investigations. We must ascertain the prominencies on the heads of living persons, and compare these with their characters; we are to notice the state of the skull, as connected with different diseases, particularly with the several species of insanity; we are to observe the effects of wounds and injuries on the mental powers; and we must compare human skulls with those of various animals.

We now arrive at the enumeration of the different organs; and here, we apprehend, the weakness of the hypothesis is obviously betrayed. As it will not be in our power to examine

separately each of the organs which Dr. Gall supposes that he has detected, we shall select a specimen, from which a judgment may be formed of his manner of reasoning, and the nature of the evidence on which he builds his doctrine.—*The organ of fighting* is situated, oddly enough, near the organ of friendship, a little above the ear; it was discovered by examining the heads of boys in the streets of Vienna, and by finding a prominence in this part of the skulls of such as were quarrelsome; the same structure was perceived to take place generally among the lower classes of people; and the reverse was observed, viz. that where the prominence was deficient the party was noted for cowardice. Dr. Gall observed that this organ was entirely wanting in the skull of a German poet which he examined, but was very distinct on that of General Wurmser; and he farther remarks that a broadness on the back of the skull is an indication of the spirit of horses, dogs, and other animals. Very much in the same kind of style are described, among other organs, that of *address*, that of *cupidity*, (by which is meant an abstract passion for stealing,) and that of *vanity*. We have then a class of a more minute description, such as the organ of aptness to retain things, to retain places, to recollect persons, to learn music, &c., all which have their appropriate seats, and may be distinguished by particular eminences on the surface of the skull.—The four remaining organs are of a superior order, and belong solely to the human species; they are those of rhetorical acuteness, of metaphysical subtilty, of wit, and of theosophy. The whole number of organs described is twenty six; and we are not to suppose that these constitute all that exist, but only those that have been hitherto detected. Indeed, if we are to proceed on the same plan of minute division through the whole range of the human powers, it is obvious that the number of organs must be exceedingly multiplied; so greatly, that this circumstance alone would form a very powerful objection to the whole system.

Probably, most of our readers will agree with us in thinking that the theory is altogether much too fanciful. and rests on too slender a foundation, to require a minute criticism on all its parts. We have, however, deemed it proper to give as favourable a representation of it as the view exhibited by the author would admit; and we have endeavoured to divest it of every circumstance that might excite any feelings of ridicule; judging it fair that Dr. Gall should not be made answerable for any inconsistencies which may perhaps be chargeable to his disciple. At the same time, we consider it as necessary to inform our readers that critics, who possessed the organ of good-nature

ture in a state of less perfect developement than ourselves, might have had many opportunities of indulging their malicious propensities in the perusal of this volume, which is ill written, and abounds with weak and trifling observations.

Bos.

ART. V. *An Account of the Ophthalmia which has appeared in England since the return of the British Army from Egypt.* By John Vetch, M.D. &c. Assistant Surgeon to the 54th Foot. 8vo. pp. 142. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

WE have lately had occasion, in different articles, to treat on the subject of the Egyptian Ophthalmia, and its introduction into this country. It appears to be established, on the most irrefragable evidence, that the disease is propagated by contagion; and that in this way it has been imported into England, and has spread in the same manner and with the same violence as in its native climate. These facts are extremely important, and cannot be too strongly impressed on the minds of the public at large; for by a disregard of them the means of prevention will be neglected, and the remedy, which has been found to act with almost uniform success, will not be employed, but the cure will be attempted by the same means as in the common inflammation of the eye.

Dr. Vetch had an opportunity of observing the disease as it appeared in its most violent form, while he was attending the 2d battalion of the 52d regiment. The origin of the infection was clearly traced to some recruits, who had formerly been affected with ophthalmia, and who had themselves received it directly from Egypt. The disease continued to prevail for some months, during which period the regiment was moved to different stations, and experienced several vicissitudes of external circumstances. No cause seemed to exist, to which the disease could be imputed, except contagion; and Dr. Vetch supposes, in opposition to the opinion of Mr. Edmonston *, that the contagion can be communicated only by local contact. It is not easy to determine this point so decidedly as to admit of no doubt, but we certainly think that the opinion of the present author is by much the most probable.

The symptoms of the disease are here well characterized; they are in some respects obviously distinct from those of the common ophthalmia, and it is a matter of the first importance to become accurately acquainted with this difference. The internal lining of the *palpebræ* appears to be the sole seat of the

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* See our Rev. for September last, Vol. liv. p. 27.

disease at its commencement; it is affected, through its whole extent, by a purulent exudation; and a quantity of pus is afterward secreted by the eye itself, but unattended by any considerable derangement of its functions. The discharge of tears is likewise very copious, but it is remarkable that scarcely any intolerance of light is found to prevail. This state of the eye remains for some time; the patient expressing but little uneasiness; and the purulent exudation not being perceptible, unless the lower lid be depressed. Unfortunately, the symptoms are often over-looked, and the complaint is but little regarded, until it arrives at what the author calls the second stage. All the morbid symptoms now become suddenly and greatly aggravated; the eye itself assumes the appearance of chemosis, the lids are extremely swelled, the discharge of pus is augmented, and the pain grows very acute. In almost all cases, the pain observes periodical paroxysms, of 3 or 4 hours' continuance. During these local complaints, scarcely any general affection of the system occurs; the pulse is a little quickened, but it is not fuller than in its natural state, nor are any marks of inflammatory fever exhibited. When the discharge of pus ceases, a number of granulations arise from the interior of the eye lids, and present a most shocking spectacle. On their subsiding, the surface of the cornea is frequently found to be opake, sometimes covered with the granulations, and occasionally ulcerated. The most unfortunate termination, however, is a rupture of the cornea; an occurrence which frequently attends the disease when in its most violent form, and which is infallibly followed by irremediable blindness. When the cornea is merely left opake, we have a prospect of relieving the disease by external applications, and sometimes the opacity is spontaneously removed with astonishing rapidity.

These are the leading symtoms of this formidable disease, when left to pursue its natural course; and of the activity of its contagion, our readers may form an idea from the striking fact stated by Dr. Vetch, that in the battalion, which consisted of 700 men, '636 cases of ophthalmia, including relapses, were admitted into the hospital, from August 1805, when the disease commenced, till the same month in 1806.'

When the disease first made its appearance, the usual remedies for ophthalmia were employed, but without any benefit. Topical bleeding, external cold, blisters, purgatives, scarifications, &c. were found equally inefficacious. In this calamitous state of things, Mr. Knight, the inspector general of army hospitals, came to the regiment, in order to ascertain with accuracy the nature of the disease; and most fortunately, —we may add, most sagaciously,—he recommended the employment

ployment of the antiphlogistic regimen in its fullest extent, particularly the very copious use of the lancet. The result of this treatment was most satisfactory. The same degree of enlargement did indeed take place in the *palpebræ* and *conjunctiva*, but the secretion of pus was inconsiderable, the granulations were no longer troublesome, the pain was comparatively slight, and the termination of the disease was uniformly favourable. The practice suggested by Mr. Knight, as the author remarks, 'has not, perhaps, from its decision and its efficacy, a parallel in the practice of medicine; and every person who has seen it employed, is sufficiently convinced of its propriety; but those who have experienced the mortification of seeing every other means unequal to combat the disease, are best able to express a just sense of its benefits.'

We need scarcely add that we have perused this volume with much interest; it gives a satisfactory account of a singular and alarming disease; and it points out the method by which its occurrence may be altogether prevented, or, if it has taken place, the means by which its violence may be subdued.

Bos.

ART. VI. *Specimens of English Prose Writers*, from the Earliest Times, to the Close of the Seventeenth Century; with Sketches Biographical and Literary: including an Account of Books, as well as of their Authors; with occasional Criticisms. By George Burnett, late of Baliol College, Oxford. 3 Vols. Crown 8vo. pp. about 500 in each. 1l. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

To trace the progress of the English Language from its rude origin to its present state of refinement, and to witness the several steps by which it acquired the perfection that may now be ascribed to it, must be highly interesting to every English scholar. As he contemplates its copiousness, its precision, and its elegance, his curiosity is naturally excited to inquire by what means and in what manner it attained those excellences, and in making the investigation he finds not only gratification but improvement: not only is he pleased in beholding its several gradations, but he is also qualified, by being conversant with the various styles of others, to judge of their merits, and to form his own.

The work before us, which was suggested by and is intended as a counter-part of Mr. Ellis's "Specimens of Early English Poets," contains Specimens of the best English Prose Writers, in succession, from the reign of Edward III. to that of James II; and the student in English literature, by having recourse to it, may be enabled to view the advances of the language

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for nearly four hundred years, from the time at which it was beginning to form itself, to the period of its approach to its present improvement.

It may be of some use to our readers, besides furnishing them with a concise view of the nature of these volumes, to transcribe the tables of their Contents, which indicate the names of the authors and the works from which the specimens are extracted.

'Vol. I. Sir John Mandeville, Trevisa—The Polychronicon, Wicliffe, Chaucer, Reynold, Pecoke (Bishop of Chichester), Sir John Fortescue, Fenn's Letters, Caxton, The Chronicles of England, The Description of England, The Fruit of Times, The Golden Legend, the Book of the Order of Chivalry or Knighthood, Morte Arthur, The Books of the Feats of Arms and of Chivalry, *Romance*, Fabian. *Revival of Letters*, Froissart, Fischer (Bishop of Rochester), Sir Thomas More, Leland, Harding, Hall, Tyndale, Coverdale, Rogers, Translations of the Bible, Latimer (Bishop of Worcester).

'Vol. II. Gardiner (Bishop of Winchester), The Complaynt of Scotland, Sir William Barlow (Bishop of Bath and Wells), Sir John Cheke, Wilson, Grafton, Roger Ascham, Fox, Holingshed, Sir Philip Sydney, Spenser, Sir Walter Ralegh, Lilly, Cecil (Lord Burleigh), Stow, Knolles, Agard, Camden, Hooker, Bacon (Lord Verulam), Speed, Daniel, Sir Henry Spelman, Andrews (Bishop of Winchester), Donne, Ben Jonson, Cotton, Purchas, Burton, Selden, King James, *Glossary*.

'Vol III. Hall (Bp. of Norwich), Herbert, Hobbes, May, Jeremy Taylor (Bishop of Downe and Connor), William Lilly, Whitelocke (Bulstrode, Lord), Sir Thomas Brown, Lord Brook, Fuller, Milton, Hyde (Earl of Clarendon), Howell, Harington, Cleiveland, Cowley, Algernon Sidney, Quarles, Walton, L'Estrange, Marvel, Felltham, France to the Life, (an anonymous work so intitled, printed in 1657,) Boyle, Barrow, Bunyan, Temple, Tillotson (Archbishop of Canterbury), Burnet (Dr. Thomas), Sherlock, Dryden, South, Barclay, Tom Brown, Lady Russel, Burnet (Bishop of Salisbury).'

The publication, however, does not consist of specimens only, but furnishes also biographical and literary anecdotes of the several writers, accounts of the different eras of literature, and views of the state of the language in the several reigns; forming a concise yet a comprehensive and interesting History of English Literature. Generally speaking, we think that the extracts are well chosen; and Mr. Burnett has not only endeavoured to shew in them the characteristic style of each writer, but to afford entertainment and improvement in the perusal. They are thus made sometimes rather longer than they would otherwise have been;—but their value is usually a sufficient apology for their length. As to the biographical notices, the editor says in his preface; 'my general source for the

the lives has been the Biographia Britannica. Other sources are referred to, where it could be of any utility. It were idle to make a display of authorities in a work which has no pretensions to originality even of compilement. Indeed, I consider myself as having done little more than collected, into a convenient form and arrangement, some information (I hope entertaining and useful) before incommodiously dispersed either in scarce or cumbrous volumes.'

For obvious resasons, we shall not attempt to lay any part of these specimens before our readers: but, as the editor appears with advantage in the other departments, we shall make a few quotations that will exemplify his manner of writing, and prove the truth of our commendations.

From Mr. B.'s account of the REVIVAL OF LETTERS, we with pleasure make the following extract:

'We are now arrived on the confines of light. The revival of classical learning about the middle of this century, (the 15th), created a new æra in literature and in human affairs, auspicious to every species of improvement. From the influence of this event upon the subsequent progress of knowledge, and particularly of the English language, it may be proper, before entering on the reign of Henry VIII. to give a cursory view of the subject, as far at least as it relates to the introduction of the Grecian and Roman learning into England.

'The connection between the ancient and modern learning, was never entirely dissolved. Amidst the violence and general insecurity which prevailed in the middle ages, the Romish clergy, invested by superstition with a mysterious and sanctified authority, which kept the vulgar in awe, enjoyed that security and leisure, which are essential to intellectual pursuits. The monastic libraries contained all the literature of the times; and a few out of the numbers who were intellectually idle, were prompted either from inherent activity of character, or simply as a remedy for listlessness, to read, and afterwards to write. We are thus indebted to the monkish writers for those few rays of light which gleam through the darkness of that savage period. Though the taste and stile of the monkish historians are as barbarous as the age in which they lived; yet, from their frequent allusions to ancient history, and their quotations of ancient authors, it is evident that the more dignified and intelligent churchmen were familiar with the Roman learning. But this learning was confined to the cloister. The profane world was sunk in ignorance and barbarism.

'About the middle of the fourteenth century, Dante, Petrarca, with his pupil and friend, Boccace, in Italy; and soon after, Chaucer and Gower, in England, by the cultivation of their vernacular languages, commenced a new æra in literary taste, and contributed to enlarge the sphere of intellectual pleasures. Petrarca was organized for the higher and more refined emotions; and his genius, inspired by the most pure and exalted passion, expressed his glowing feelings in language of correspondent truth and delicacy. The strings of the human

human heart, vibrating in harmony, acknowledged the touch of nature; and the poetry of Petrarca creating a finer intellectual *tact*, produced in a few minds, a distaste for romantic imagery and the peculiarities of Gothic manners. This incipient diffusion of a juster sentiment, prepared the way for the complete establishment of classical refinement in the succeeding century.'

Mr. Burnett's detail of the several translations of the Bible is on many accounts peculiarly interesting, and our readers no doubt will pardon us for the length of the citations:

'As the several translations of the scriptures had very considerable influence on the early progress, as well as on the subsequent establishment, of our language, I shall perhaps be excused for introducing, in this place, a brief account of those versions which existed prior to Wicliffe.—It is asserted by Fox, the martyrologist, in the preface to his Saxon copy of the four Gospels, published in 1571, from a MS in the Bodleian library, that Bede not only translated the whole Bible into Saxon, but also, not long before his death, the Gospel of St. John into the English of his time; that Alfred translated both the Old and New Testament into his native language; that if histories were well examined, it would be found that before the conquest and after, as likewise before Wicliffe and since, the whole body of scripture was translated, by sundry persons, into English; and that Arundel, archbishop of York, and chancellor of England, at the funeral sermon of queen Anne, who died in 1394, affirmed that princess to have had the Gospels in the vulgar tongue, with divers expositions upon the same, which she sent to him to be examined.

'It may be proper to remark upon this abstract, that the English language, as spoken at present, did not begin to be formed till several centuries after the *Anglo-Saxon* version of Bede, who died in 734; and that the version of the Gospels last-mentioned, as in the possession of queen Anne, was probably that of Wicliffe, as he died ten years before that princess.

'There was, however, a metrical version of the scriptures in French, mentioned by Warton, in his history of English Poetry, made about the year 1200; and one in prose, by Mace, in 1343: and another also in verse by Raoul de Presles, in the year 1380. From the intimate connection of the English and French, and from the circumstance of the French tongue being the language of the court, at this period, those versions were very possibly known to some of the higher ranks in England. But the lower orders were unable to read even in their vernacular language; and from the general ignorance which hence prevailed, the impudence and selfish policy of the monks were busy in propagating the opinion, that it was unlawful for any but priests to read the scriptures. Yet, in spite of this terrific dogma, Richard Rolle, hermit of Hampole, in Yorkshire, who died in 1349, had the courage to translate the Psalter, and the hymns of the church, into English; and he has the honour of being the first who rendered a portion of the contents of this venerable volume into his vernacular language. He also wrote a gloss in English,

English, upon the Psalter; of which there is a somewhat different translation in the Harleian library, also with a gloss; and in the King's library another, from psalm 89, to 118. At the end of the MS. of Hampole's Psalter, in Sidney College, Cambridge, follow the Canticles translated and commented on, as the book of Psalms.

'It seems likewise, that some parts, if not the whole of the New Testament, were also translated by different persons, and glossed and explained in the same manner. In the MS. library of Bennet College, Cambridge, is a gloss, in the English, spoken after the conquest, on the following books of the New Testament; viz. the Gospels of St. Mark and St. Luke, the Epistles to the Romans, Corinthians, Galatians, Ephesians, Philippians, Colossians, Thessalonians, Timothy, Titus, Philemon, and Hebrews; among which is inserted, between the Epistles to the Colossians and Thessalonians, the Apocryphal Epistle to the Laodiceans. The comment which accompanies this version, resembles that of Hampole; being for the most part mystical and allegorical.

'Whether Trevisa's version, before mentioned, consisted of the whole Bible, or merely of some particular portions of it, is doubtful; though the latter supposition is the most probable.

'These translations, then, of parts of the Old and New Testament, not of the whole Bible, were all made before Wicliffe began to flourish. It is probable, too, that they were not published; but designed merely for the translator's own use.'—

'Wicliffe's translation, in which he was assisted by several of his followers, probably occupied the last ten years of his life. As he was not sufficiently acquainted with the Hebrew and Greek to translate from them, his version was made from the vulgate, of which he collated numerous copies. His method of translating was literal, or word for word, as had been done before, in the Anglo-Saxonic translation, without much attention to the difference of idiom in the two languages. Hence, this version, in some places, is not very intelligible to those who are unacquainted with the Latin. Wicliffe seems to have done this by design; since, in a prologue to his Psalter, he says, "They who know not the Latin, by the English, may come to many Latin words." It should be observed too, that the vulgate text from which Wicliffe translated, though collated from numerous copies, differed, in many places, from the established vulgate of modern times. Of this translation, several MS. copies still exist in the libraries of our Universities, in the British Museum, and in other public and private collections. In St. John's College in Oxford is a MS. of the Old Testament, said to be of Wicliffe's own writing, which ends with the Second Book of Maccabees.'—

'The most outrageous abuse was bestowed upon Wicliffe by the Catholic party, for thus enabling the multitude to draw at the fountain of their faith. Henry Knyghton, canon of Leicester, his cotemporary, thus speaks of his labours. "This Master John Wicliffe, translated out of Latin into English, the Gospel, which Christ had entrusted with the clergy and doctors of the church, that *they* might minister it to the laity and weaker sort, according to the exigency

of times, and their several occasions. So that by this means, the Gospel is made vulgar, and laid more open to the laity, and even to women, who could read, than it used to be to the most learned of the clergy, and those of the best understanding. And so the Gospel jewel, or Evangelical pearl, is thrown about and trodden under foot of swine."

'This is a mild specimen of Catholic rage. The general alarm, however, among the clergy was so great, that in the 13th of Richard II. a bill was brought into the House of Lords for suppressing it; but was opposed in so firm a tone by the renowned duke of Lancaster, that it was thrown out.

'Some of the followers of Wicliffe, encouraged by his success, undertook to review his translation, or rather to make another, which was less literal, but more conformable to the sense. Of this version also, various MS. copies exist in our public libraries.

'In the age of Wicliffe, the orthodox divines commonly wrote in Latin. But the sentiments he was so zealous to promulgate, could not have been sufficiently diffused, if he had confined himself to a learned language; and to give his arguments their utmost influence by rendering them intelligible to the bulk of the people, he was compelled to write, as well as to speak, in the vernacular tongue. His quarrel with the pope, therefore, in addition to the more important consequences it involved, may be considered as highly auspicious to English literature: for his influence with his cotemporaries, arising from his talents and pre-eminent learning, aided by the contagious nature of the sentiments he was ambitious to disseminate, greatly contributed to give diffusion to that *fashion* in the use of the English, which had already begun to prevail, and which was subsequently established by the exertions of Chaucer and Gower.'—

'About twenty-four years after the death of Wicliffe, archbishop Arundel, in a convocation of the clergy of his province assembled at Oxford, published a constitution, by which it was decreed, "that no one should thereafter translate any text of Holy Scripture into English, by way of a book, a little book, or tract; and that no book, &c. of this kind should be read that was composed lately in the time of John Wicliffe, or since his death."

'The Latin Bible, or Vulgate, was first printed in 1462, and by several succeeding editions, soon became common. The Old Testament in Hebrew, was first printed in 1488; and the New Testament at Basil, in its original Greek, about thirty years after When these sacred oracles were brought into England, with the introduction of printing, the illiterate and terrified monks declaimed from their pulpits, that there was now a new language discovered, called *Greek*, of which people should beware, since it was that which produced all the heresies; that in this language was come forth a book called the *New Testament*, which was now in every body's hands, and was full of thorns and briars; that there was also another language now started up, which they called *Hebrew*, and that they who learned it were turned Hebrews.

'About this time, the vicar of Croydon, in Surry, in a sermon preached at Paul's Cross, is said to have declared, with

prophetic wisdom, "We must root out printing, or printing will root out us."

'Notwithstanding, however, the clamours of the monks, and persecutions of the secular clergy, William Tyndale, in the reign of Henry VIII. undertook to translate the Scriptures from the original Hebrew and Greek, into English; though he was convinced, from the circumstances of the times, that the undertaking would be accomplished at the hazard of his life. That he might prosecute his design in greater security, he made an attempt, through the interest of Sir Henry Guildford, master of horse to the king, and a warm patron of learned men, to be admitted into the family of Tonstal, lately promoted to the see of London. But his application proving unsuccessful, and still contemplating his favourite object with ardent enthusiasm, he resolved to go abroad. To accomplish which purpose, he was allowed an annuity of ten pounds a year by Humphry Monmouth, a wealthy citizen, and a favourer of the reformation; and at Antwerp, in Flanders, he prosecuted his design with great assiduity. John Fry and William Roye, who acted as amanuenses for him, also assisted him in collating texts; and the New Testament was finished in 1526, of which one thousand five hundred copies were printed, but without a name. This edition, by Tyndale's own acknowledgment, had considerable errors; but it sold so rapidly, that the following year another edition was published by the Dutch printers, and the year after, another, each consisting of five thousand copies. Great numbers of these were imported into England, and the whole speedily sold. The importers, however, were prosecuted with great, though often ludicrous, severity. To give an instance—John Tyndale, the translator's brother, and Thomas Patmore, merchants, were condemned to do penance, by riding with their faces to their horses' tails, with the books fastened thick about them, pinned or tacked to their gowns or cloaks, to the standard in *Cheap*, and there, with their own hands, to fling them into the fire kindled on purpose to burn them.

'But the zeal of the reformers surmounted every obstacle, and the New Testament of this translation, continued to be imported and read; a fact which is proved from the sale of the three editions before mentioned, before the year 1530, when a third Dutch edition was printed.

'Meanwhile Tyndale was diligently occupied in translating from the Hebrew the five books of Moses; and having finished his translation, he was shipwrecked on his voyage to Hamburgh, (undertaken in order to print it,) the manuscript lost, and he was obliged to begin all anew. From this accident, the Old Testament did not appear in an English dress till the year 1530. In this year too, being now at leisure, Tyndale published his "Answer unto Sir Thomas More's Dialogue."

After having given a particular and interesting account of the various translators, Mr. B. thus concludes the article:

'I have been thus copious in my account of the several versions of the Scriptures, not simply to exhibit a picture of the theological opinions

opinions and prejudices of this period, but because those versions did more, perhaps, to fix the language, than all other books put together. A similar effect was produced in Germany by the German translations. They have transmitted and perpetuated many ancient words, which probably would otherwise have become obsolete or unintelligible. It is justly remarked by Warton, that they contributed to enrich our native English, by importing and familiarising many Latin words, particularly the Latin derivative substantives, such as—divination, perdition, adoption, manifestation, consolation, contribution, administration, consummation, reconciliation, operation, communication, retribution, preparation, immortality, principality, &c. &c. And in other words, frustrate, inexcusable, transfigure, concupiscence, &c. &c. These words were obviously suggested by the Latin Vulgate; and at the time must have been incomprehensible by the bulk of the people, and even by many of the first classes. Hence it appears that Gardiner had little cause for his complaint, that the translation was too clear; and for his proposal, that instead of always using English phrases, many Latin terms should still be retained, from the hypocritical plea of their inherent significance and dignity.

'But there were effects which resulted from the translation of the Bible still more important than the fixing the language, but to which *that* was necessarily precursive. Before the Scriptures were in the vulgar tongue, the ignorance of the lower classes was scarcely one remove above complete barbarism. They had now an opportunity of exercising their own judgments on the articles of their religious creed; and their frequent disputations on the meaning of different texts, their comments, and even their quarrels about divine things—all operated as powerful stimulants to awaken their faculties from the deep slumber which had oppressed and degraded them. The humanizing influence, too, of Christianity, purified and exalted their affections, while its doctrines instructed them in their duties, and its sanctions urged to the practice of them. It were futile to object that the lower classes of religionists, and even those of more cultivated minds, blended the absurdest superstition, both with their theoretical and practical theology. This must necessarily be the case, till the instruments of thought are sufficiently sharpened and polished by use, to enable them to separate the true from the false. With the hope of eternal and inconceivable rewards on one hand, and the prospect of unimagined and ever-during torment on the other—tenets rendered operative by being brought home to the feelings by faith—their effect was great in proportion as their motives were powerful. Hence, among the early reformers, conscience was almost omnipotent: for, though to avoid being burnt alive, many of them recanted, yet the horrors of remorse, more terrible than devouring fire, caused many also to relapse into their former *heresies*, and joyfully to embrace the flames in which they were consumed. The improvement of the public morals was the necessary consequence of this obedience to duty.'

In the specimens, the editor has judiciously adopted the modern orthography; since, had the antient spelling been preserved

preserved, the general reader would have been disgusted with the appearance of the language, and prevented from reaping advantage from the work. The obsolete terms, however, have been retained, but they are printed in Italics, with an explanation placed at the bottom of the page; and a Glossary is added at the end of the second Volume, to explain those words which are not thus noticed.—With respect to the obsolete Orthography, 'it has occurred to Mr. B. to print a few sentences or a short passage in each author in the antient manner, should the work be sanctioned by the public approbation:' we approve this idea, and think that the publication will be more perfect if it be adopted in a succeeding edition. Mr. Burnett also remarks that it might have given an air of greater completeness to his performance, had it been preceded by an essay on the early formation of our language from the Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French: but, having been anticipated by Messrs. Ellis, Johnson, and Tyrwhit, he thought that it would be an useless repetition. No doubt, were such an Essay prefixed, this compilation would be more complete; and though the subject has been treated by others, we should have been pleased to see the plan adopted in these volumes. Slight specimens of the language in the various reigns, with translations into modern English, would also be gratifying to many who might not meet with the authors adduced.—Moreover, as this production is intended for the use of students in English literature, we should have been glad to have met with an analytical account of the styles of the different authors, specifying their progressive improvement in precision and good taste.

We do not see any particular reason which should have prevented the Specimens from reaching farther down than the end of the seventeenth century; and we think that an additional and very interesting volume might be composed of extracts from the writers of the succeeding age. Although the works of our most elegant and pure authors are well known, yet a series of specimens, with critical remarks on their several styles, would be acceptable and instructive: since the young student might hence be made acquainted with the peculiar excellencies of Addison, Swift, Hume, Johnson, Reynolds, Burke, &c. and be taught to form a just estimate of the value of their writings. This supplementary volume, however, may be published whenever the author may chuse to undertake it, without waiting for the call of a new edition of the others.

We have the more readily offered these suggestions, because the editor expresses his willingness to adopt any hint that may add to the utility or entertainment of his book. As it

is now presented to us, however, we regard it as worthy of no small commendation; and to all who are interested in the progress of their mother-tongue, we cheerfully recommend a perusal of these volumes. We had occasion to commend Mr. Burnett, in our last number, for his *View of Poland*, and we are happy in again meeting with him,—*though it be at home.*

ART. VII. *General View of the Agriculture of the County of Gloucester;* drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By Thomas Rudge, B. D. 8vo. pp. 408. 9s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1807.

As we have already noticed many of the county surveys which have been undertaken by experienced men at the desire of the Board of Agriculture, it will be sufficient for us on the present occasion to state, *in limine*, that the work before us is prosecuted on the same plan as the other Reports, and will not be found inferior to any in point of execution. Mr. Rudge appears to have been industrious in collecting materials, to have examined with a discriminating eye, and with his experience to have combined those reflections which belong to minds of a superior order. If correctness has not always been attained, it has evidently been his constant object; and if we cannot subscribe to all his observations, we in general agree with him on the most important points which become matters of discussion when the internal state of the Empire is under consideration. Without farther preface, then, we shall enter on the details which this volume affords respecting the County of Gloucester.

This division of the kingdom of Great Britain extends northward from 51° 28′ to 52° 12′, and from 1°38′ east to 2° 42′ west of London; on the north and north-east it is bounded by Worcestershire and Warwickshire, on the east by Oxfordshire, on the south and south-east by part of Berkshire and Wiltshire, on the south and south-west by Somersetshire and the Bristol Channel, and on the west and north-west by the counties of Monmouth and Hereford. According to the tables given in this work, the county of Gloucester contains 695,252 acres; about 300,000 of which are under tillage, 463,183 are still subject to tithes, and 232,069 have been exonerated by acts of Parliament, &c.; and the population of the county and city amounts to 210,267, having increased since the beginning of the last century, 84,145. The rental of the county was calculated from the parochial returns in 1803 at 846, 234l.; and supposing the parishes to be rated at three-fourths of the rack-rent, the whole sum will be

be 1,128,312l. In 1776, the freeholders who actually voted were 5790. Persons relieved in and out of workhouses are stated at 33,113, at the expence of 3l. 1s. 7¼d. per head, or 102,013l. 12s. 8d. total; which, on the above stated rental, amounts to 1s. 9½d. per pound *per annum.*

After a full enumeration of the political divisions and subdivisions of the county, Mr. Rudge proceeds to consider that natural division of it which will best answer the purpose of an agricultural survey; and in this view he parcels it into three districts, the *Cotswold*, *Vale*, and *Forest*, describing the soil, surface, and climate of each. Under the head of Minerals, we have a statement of the coal which the Forest produces:

'The pits in the Forest of Dean are numerous, not fewer perhaps than one hundred and fifty. Many of these are worked at a shallow depth, for want of mechanical powers to exhaust the water. The steam-engine, on account of the great expence of erecting it, is beyond the reach of those who generally own and work the pits: for all free-miners and colliers claim a right to dig for coal and ore; and as they are a species of adventurers without capital, few of the modern improvements can be expected to take place. There are, however, at this time, three engines; and, from the pits connected with them, coal of good quality has already been raised; though in all, much sulphur is contained, which in burning emits unpleasant, if not unwholesome, vapours, and from its known property of dissolving iron, makes a rapid waste in the bars of the grates, wherein the coal is burnt.'

On account of the bad quality of this coal, little of it is consumed by the inhabitants of Gloucester; and the city is supplied from Shropshire and Staffordshire, which yield coal that is superior to any that is found in the county under survey. Lime stone, blue clay stone, freestone, and gypsum, are enumerated among its minerals.

A circumstance is mentioned in the chapter on the *State of Property*, respecting Tenures, which proves that holdings under ecclesiastical and civil corporations are more advantageous than under individual proprietors; for it is there stated that 'under the Dean and Chapter, estates are held by leases of twenty-one years, renewable every seven, on a fine of one year and a half improved value. The tenure under the Corporation of Gloucester is nearly the same. Under proprietors, not corporate, the renewal of a single life is usually made at two years annual value.' This fact is not confined to the county of Gloucester, and it ought not to pass without notice.

Mr. Rudge has given a list, occupying nearly five pages, of *Mansions* belonging to the principal proprietors; stating the name of each mansion, with the parish in which it is situated, and distinguishing such as are inhabited by the owners, which

is the case with a very few exceptions. To this list a judicious remark is subjoined:

'The residence of gentlemen at their mansions is a matter of no inconsiderable importance to the welfare of the public, and, when they occupy a part of their estates with a view to its improved cultivation, highly favourable to the agricultural interests of the county. Rack renters, however well disposed to try experiments, are usually deterred by the possibility of a failure, and, having a certain payment to make to the owner of the land, are unwilling to trust it to the uncertain issue of an untried system. No apprehension of this sort alarms a great proprietor; the subsistence of himself or family depends not on the result of an experiment, nor, if he fails in the first, is he obliged to relinquish the further pursuits of improvement, from fear of the consequence of failure. It is justly observed by Mr. Malthus, in his Treatise on Population, that the reason why the agriculture of Norway has advanced so slowly is, that there are no gentlemen farmers, who may set examples of improved cultivation, and break the routine of ignorance and prejudice in the conduct of farms, that had been handed down from father to son for successive ages.'

This reporter is not less sensible in his observations on *Cottages*, which are of more importance to the agricultural interest than some short-sighted persons are ready to allow. We transcribe with satisfaction most of the section which is appropriated to this subject:

'Cottages are equally necessary with mansions and farm-houses, though it appears by the face of the country, that this evident truth is not always recollected. In general, through the kingdom, it is to be feared, that the popular complaint against the dilapidation of cottages is but too well founded. In the Vale, as well as other parts of this county, there are numerous instances of this mistaken policy; and under all the circumstances of the increased cost of materials, and builder's wages, it is scarcely to be supposed, that the evil, so far gone, will find a speedy remedy. Landlords generally deem building cottages an unprofitable way of expending money; yet a land owner should recollect, that he cannot expect tenants for his lands, if proper places are not provided for the residence of the labourers. A tenant, indeed, taking a farm, either not foreseeing the speedy operation of the evil, or looking up to the landlord for redress, when it shall happen, seldom, if ever, troubles himself about the number of cottages annexed to it. Overseers are not often aware of the power the law gives them of erecting cottages on the waste; and hence it follows, that more families are crowded together than is either consistent with comfort, health, or decency; or a remedy is applied, worse possibly than the disease, which is, to build a workhouse, into which every person wanting relief is crammed, without distinction of age, sex, or cause of distress.

'A cottage, which merely protects the inhabitant from the inclemency of the weather is an incompleat provision: sound policy

requires some concomitant advantages to attach him to his dwelling. I do not think that a cow is one of the necessary appendages to a cottage, or generally productive of good. In particular cases, the experiment has succeeded well, as reported by Lord Winchelsea, on his estates: and it will, perhaps, succeed in others, where the influence of a great-land proprietor extends over the whole parish, or district; but property, in few instances, is thus consolidated. Besides, the management of a cow is attended with considerable trouble, requires more utensils than the earning of a day labourer can well supply, and more conveniences of building than are usually attached to a cottage. Capital is the sinew of husbandry, and, unless it be proportioned to the undertaking, the efforts will be weak, and the success uncertain.

'There is also reason to doubt, whether the labourer or his wife will be able to spare the time from their respective employments, and, should it so happen, the evil will overbalance the good. It is pleasing to see a good garden, and a pig attached to the cottage; but neither of these interfere with the daily services of the labourer, or withdraw him from the necessary attention to the business of the farmer.

'The greatest of evils to agriculture would be to place the labourer in a state of independence, and thus destroy the indispensable gradations of society. The great body of mankind, being obliged to live with, and by, each other, must necessarily consist of proprietors and workmen; and if it be allowed that the dependence of a regular supply of crops rests, among other things, on the regular services of the latter, it is surely an experiment not altogether without danger, to place them in such a situation as will cause them to remit a portion of their labour, at a time, perhaps, when it is most wanted.

'Would you then, it may be asked by the philanthropists, confine the labourer to his situation, and prevent his rise in the scale of society? No; but I would wish it to be left to his own industry and exertion: he should be supplied with the means of doing something more than earn his daily wages; he should have more land than is usually held with cottages: the great object is to enable him to subsist without parochial relief, and this is essentially to increase his comforts. What more is done, should be the result of a conduct peculiarly frugal and industrious. I would always wish to infer from neatness in the cottage, the pig in the stye, and store of vegetables in the garden, that the occupier has neither been inattentive to his own, or the general interests of agriculture; and such a man will feel an attachment to his possessions, from the consciousness of having brought them to their present state of improvement by his own care. His desire to protect and improve his property, will also be increased by the recollection of the labour he has bestowed upon it; and when surrounded by his family, he can with truth admonish them to be attentive to their duties, in order to better their condition, not only by pointing out the evils of idleness and vice, but by shewing in his own instance the good effects of industry and prudence, cleanliness and virtue.

'Influenced by these considerations, I wish that every industrious labourer possessed a legal right, under certain restrictions, to build a cottage for himself, with his own savings and the voluntary assistance of his neighbours, and to inclose a garden of a limited extent, from the waste: or that in any way he might have a permanent security in the premises he occupies, till by idleness and vice he should become unworthy of encouragement.'

We need not offer any comments on this statement: its good sense will speak for itself.

Much sound reasoning occurs on the size of *Farms*, and on the beneficial operation of the increased price of *Grain* in seasons of scarcity: but we shall make no extract from this part of the work, these subjects having undergone a very ample discussion. Relative to *Inclosing*, it is stated that 'the first act of inclosure in this county was of Farmington (12 Anne), in 1714, and the only one during that reign. In the following reign, three parishes were inclosed; in the reign of George II. eleven; and, in the present reign, more than seventy Acts have passed the Parliament for inclosing, or laying into severalty.' To enforce the necessity of obviating the difficulties which attend the present system of inclosing, and to prove how much it is to be desired that one general, uniform, and economical plan should obtain the sanction of parliament, Mr. R. instances the inclosure in the parish of Turley. 'Posterity, (says he) will scarcely believe, that the expences of inclosing 1000 acres, without taking in the subsequent costs of fences and buildings, amounted to 4,500l. in the year 1795; which was the fact in the parish of Turley. Great as may be the future advantages of an inclosure, this operates as an obstacle to the general adoption of the plan.' It is the opinion of this reporter that the expence and difficulties attendant on acts of inclosure would be considerably lightened, by intrusting the management to one commissioner instead of three.

When Mr. Rudge asserts that 'it is evident that *Smut* will sometimes produce smut,' he should have remembered that *post hoc ergo propter hoc* is vicious reasoning; and he owns that his experiments made with smutted grain tend to prove the reverse. Yet he evinces a partiality for the custom of steeping the seed wheat in a lixivium previously to sowing; and, strange to say, he thinks that this lixivium affords protection to the plant against insects, till the ear is ripened: as if it were possible that the saturation with saline particles of the pulpy part of the seed, which decays soon after the germ vegetates, could extend its influence even to the new plant in the ear. Let Mr. R. reconsider this point.

An

An enumeration of *Corn weeds* is attempted at the end of Chapter 7: but it is not complete, as will be evident by comparing this part of Mr. Rudge's work with Mr. Pitt's Essay on Weeds in the Communications to the Board of Agriculture, vol. V. Part II., now on our table. We find, however, a circumstance mentioned by him which accounts for the celebrity of Tewkesbury mustard, according to Falstaff's simile in 2 Henry IV., "*As thick as Tewkesbury mustard.*"

'An agricultural writer has observed, that what is vulgarly called charlock in the Vale of Gloucester, is really the common mustard (*sinapis nigra,*) cultivated in the north for its flour. It is often here collected by the country people for the same purpose; and before the simple mode of living among the ancient farmers fell into disuse, few farm-houses were without a cannon ball and bowl, in which the mustard seed was bruised, and the flour saved for the table, with the black husks unseparated from it. The lands in the neighbourhood of Tewkesbury were probably much employed in raising mustard-seed in ancient times, as well as other parts of the Vale; and hence the proverbial expression.'

In the district under review, *Orchards* occupy a conspicuous place, and of their growth and management Mr. Rudge treats at large. Here a new mode of grafting, invented by Dr. Cheston of Gloucester, is mentioned, and represented to promise great advantages. The process is thus described:

'When the stocks are arrived to a proper age for planting out, the ground is opened about them, and they are separated from the largest roots; of which such are chosen as are of a sufficient size for cleft grafting, which mode is to be preferred; and if the roots are inclining, they are raised to a perpendicular, without disturbing their extremities in the ground; the scion is then inserted, and secured in the usual way. The earth is thrown around them, and one bud, or two at most, to guard against failure, are left above ground, which will be found to strike with astonishing vigour. If both succeed, the least promising is removed. The buds which are covered with earth shoot out into roots, so that when the trees are to be removed to their destined situation, they may be entirely separated from the original root on which they were engrafted. To the parent stock, sufficient roots remain for its future support, and it may be planted elsewhere, either for the purpose of producing a fresh supply of roots for the same process, or for grafting in the orchard. 'Some grafts, which were thus inserted in 1800, were handsome trees, eight feet high, in 1804, and had fine fruit on them.'

Every species of information, which respects the supply of our great bulwark the Navy, is now universally interesting; we shall not, therefore, be required to make any apology for introducing the estimate of the *Navy-timber* in the Forest of Dean:

'In 1714, there were computed to be 27,302 loads fit for the navy, and 108,051 trees, of about sixty years growth. In 1783, on a new survey it was computed, that there were 90,382 oak trees, containing 95,043 loads; and in 1788, the timber growing in the Forest, and immediately belonging to the Crown, was as follows: 24,000 oak trees, measuring about 30,000 loads; and 22,000, about 11,000; besides unsound trees, which were numerous and a considerable quantity of fine large beech, and young growing trees, sufficient to furnish an annual supply of 1500 loads for seventy years from that time, which, by proper management, and well protected inclosures, might be made perpetual.'

Great attention is now bestowed by gentlemen-farmers on the *Breed of Sheep*, and certain benefits have resulted from their scientific and liberal exertions: but Mr. Rudge suspects that the *rage* for the fine woolled breeds is likely to be carried two far; and he proposes two very important questions on the policy of the new system:

'First, will the encouragement given to the growth of fine wool lessen the quantity of animal food, since an increasing population imperiously calls for a contrary effect? The quantity of meat does not seem to depend on the size of one carcase so much, that an equivalent may not be provided by many, with the same quantity of nutriment. A prime consideration is, whether the animal has an aptitude to fatten, and that too on the best points. The form of the Ryelander is in all respects adapted to the carrying of flesh and fat. The neck is fine, the legs short, the haunches full, and the bone remarkably small; so that it is doubtful whether the breed is capable of much improvement, except in wool: but if several Ryelanders may be fatted to the same collective weight, as a smaller number of a larger breed, without a greater consumption of food, and without diminution in the quality of wool, the advantage is in their favour; and if the cross with the Spanish does not lower the flavour of the mutton, or lessen the aptitude to fatten, these experiments which are now making will probably produce great national good. Secondly, Is the present quantity of coarse wool, grown in the united kingdom, large enough to allow a considerable portion to be drawn from the regular demands of the manufacturers? It is asserted, that the consumption of coarse wool is equal to the full growth within the year, and that every pound taken from it, takes away so much employment from the labouring manufacturer, and eventually raises the price of coarse cloths. If this be fairly made out, the new system willl be attended with considerable risque; but I do not know that the fact has been fully substantiated by evidence.'

As *Horses* consume a very large proportion of the agricultural produce of this island, a diminution of their number is an object of importance; and wherever Oxen can be substituted for them in husbandry, the former ought to be superseded.

It

It is said that 3,250,000 quarters of oats, the produce of 1,300,000 acres, are annually consumed by horses in this kingdom: but, even supposing that on farms Oxen were universally to take the place of horses, which cannot possibly be the case, the consumption of oats would not be so much diminished as some persons have imagined, since the number of pleasure horses is very great. We wish, however, to urge agriculturists to weigh the advantages which result from the employment of oxen in husbandry.

'For some purposes,' says Mr. Rudge, 'they are not calculated; but on all farms, except those of a very limited extent, there is sufficient employ for one team of each; and certainly, when it is considered that oxen are maintained at less expence, with a saving of two parts in three; that they are less liable to disorders, and require less attendance; are easily brought into the habit of working, are capable of doing nearly as much work as horses, and are every year rather improving than otherwise; it is a matter of surprize, that they are not more used in the cultivation of large farms. On small farms, they cannot conveniently become general, because one team of horses is indispensible; and therefore the farmer must be contented with that, unless his occupation be equal to the keeping of both.'

It is the opinion of this writer that *Canals* have not operated to the advantage of Agriculture; and that the loss of land in their construction, with the inconvenience arising from their intersection of farms, has not been properly appreciated.

Among the obstacles to improvement, this reporter enumerates the existence of Tithes in their present state, the postponement of a general Inclosure-act, the want of underground Drains, and the scarcity of Timber; and he urges the importance of granting leases of a convenient length, and attending to the state of the roads. In conclusion, the planting of the Orchis as a matter of profit is recommended; and if the calculation here given can be accurate, the advantages which would result from its culture must be considerable: but we shall not hazard an opinion on this speculation.

An appendix furnishes many useful particulars on the price of building-materials, various kinds of labour, &c. It also contains a letter from Edward Sheppard, Esq. to Sir John Sinclair, Bart. on the subject of his Experiments regarding the Improvement of the fine-woolled breeds of Sheep in this kingdom; in which the author combats the statements of those writers who have contended for the universal introduction of the Merino breed, or of crosses from it. Mr. S. seems

to make a proper distinction between different situations. In poor mountainous districts, he advises that the breed should be improved by a mixture with the Spanish: but that the rich and highly cultivated parts of the kingdom should be left in possession of the large long woolled flocks. Good judgment is evident in this recommendation.

We have formerly hinted that the County-Maps given with these Reports are on much too small a scale. Mo-y.

ART. VIII. *An accurate Copy of the Petition, finally agreed to at a General Meeting of the Catholics of Ireland, February* 24, 1807; and intended to be presented to Parliament. With a Preface, containing Strictures on the Minister's Speech at the Close of the late Parliament.—The Military Bill—and the Management of Ireland during Lord Grenville's Administration. By a Petitioner. 8vo. pp. 40. Dublin. 1807.

WE think that the modest and unpretending preface, by which this Petition is here ushered in, deserves no small portion of attention from all who feel an interest in the safety of their country. The facts and observations which it contains place in a strong light the present situation of Ireland, and the danger to which it exposes that island and the empire itself.

The political machinations of the last spring and summer, and the scenes to which they led, excited the indignation of every liberal and enlightened bosom, as debasing the public mind, as degrading the nation in the eyes of Europe, as rousing bigotry from its long slumber, and as inflaming religious dissentions: but it is not in this view alone that these miserable and unworthy artifices are to be reprobated, and their authors and abettors to be condemned. We ought to be aware that popular enthusiasm, and national energies, have been directed to and wasted on a phantom; and that they have produced a discontent in one part of the empire, and a spirit of intolerance in the other, from the operations of which conjointly the most serious consequences are to be apprehended, if wiser and more genial councils do not speedily apply some remedy to the evil.—Of the dangers from the present state of Ireland, he pages before us will apprize the reader.

It is also an undoubted and distressing fact that, owing to the publications of the members for Northampton and Shrewsbury, and the speeches of Alderman Birch and others, the indisposition of the people in general towards farther concessions to the catholics is greatly increased; and that the spirit excited

excited by these inflammatory performances has so worked on numbers of well disposed but headstrong persons, as to make them prefer exposing the country to the most alarming external dangers, rather than see their fellow subjects clothed with the same civil rights which they themselves enjoy.

In reference to the Catholic bill, this writer remarks:

'I am astonished to observe, that, in their anxiety to reprehend the late administration, some persons in England have treated this matter as a mere deception; or calculated, at best, to pay a compliment to a few persons of rank, and procure votes in Parliament. It was merely the commencement of a new system; a disposal of circumstances in such a manner as tended to improvement, but of which the salutary result was to ensue at a period somewhat distant. There was no Catholic in the service, sufficiently forward, to profit for many years of the proposed regulation; not a single vote in parliament is at the disposal of the aristocracy, or of any other description of that people;—their feelings, if the state of influences were different, would have been more consulted both by the late and present Ministers. Never was any measure less liable to the imputation of interested motives; it was planned in provident patriotism, good sense, and in the very soundest policy.—A boon to the Catholics! they would have, perhaps, been rendered a medium of great imperial benefit; just as the reform of jurisprudence in Scotland would have been a national good, through the immediate instrumentality of Presbyterians. The essential merits of the scheme were, that the promise and prospect of unrestricted promotion would have opened the career of ambition; and, by the encouragement of honourable inducements, have called forth the energies of character, and the exertion of those who are now engaged, or who shall engage in the British service;—that the present repugnance to a military life would have been overcome, and the example of their immediate superiors brought to bear upon the class, which supplies private soldiers.—These were great and comprehensive benefits to the state, in comparison of which, any particular advantage was insignificant; yet advantages this act contained, although they did not immediately meet the senses; it gave a pledge too solemn to be henceforward slighted; it sanctioned the public faith, by a penalty on its violators.—The gain to the Catholics would simply have been a principle; that to the state, the direction to its armies of a great population, possessing immense military capabilities. The politicians of *no Popery* have triumphed for the instant; they have spoiled an argument, but they have overturned one of the most powerful and most sure resources of the empire.'

The mass of military strength which is lost to the empire may be seen from what follows:

'During the American war, when the navy of France was in the towering height of its prosperity, never did the defence, or internal Police of Ireland draw more than ten thousand troops from the strength of the empire; you would at present feel uneasy, if only fifty thousand men were assigned for the same duties.—What constitutes

tutes this immense and alarming difference? Is it the temper in which Government is carried on? Is it the management, is it the ability or dispositions of our political conductors? There are confessedly in Ireland a redundaucy of hands, beyond the number which the monied capital of our island can take into employment; they are literally eating each other up; and you place an overgrown army, a part of them also foreigners, as centinels, to assist and superintend the operation; when by merely consulting the humour and conceding to the wishes of the nation; by employing the authority and influence of Government, to suppress a feud, silly in the extreme, which indeed, were it not for its consequences, could only furnish matter for ridicule; forty thousand of these troops, and sixty thousand of these people, the guardians and the guarded, might be spared to promote, in aggressive warfare, the welfare and honour of the empire. This people do not engage, because you do not draw them by their national feelings; and a clamour is set up against the persons who, observing this defect, attempted to assist the service of the state, by silencing the objections of the parent and the pastor! Under the Ministry of Mr. Addington, when fifty pounds were the bounty for a man in England, you might have procured him in Ireland for fifty shillings; so much is the condition of a soldier, in pay and accommodation, preferable to that of an Irish labourer; and the numbers so to be withdrawn, would rather have relieved than inconvenienced the general circumstances of the country.'

This author then states that

'In the Austrian territory there is a considerable Jewish population, which of course contributes its share to the armies of that monarchy. Enlightened liberal and Protestant England will probably hear with wonder, that the narrow and ignorant Papists, who sway in Austria, respect the religious feelings of the Jewish soldiers, and protect them in every rite and observance; so much attention is paid, that throughout the garrisons of the empire a military order regularly issues every year, to exempt the Jews, for a certain time, from duty, in order to allow them undisturbed attendance on their solemn festivals. I am disposed to think that, in this respect, Austria is a little less barbarous than our own arrogant islanders, although she does not adopt that great symbol of civilization, the ecclesiastical discipline and other national peculiarities of England.'

When we consider that a hundred thousand men are lost to the military strength of the empire, owing to the bigotry which lately raged so fiercely, and when we reflect on the policy of Austria, which incorporates with its armies loyal subjects who are not even christians, we must confess, with astonishment at the fact, that scarcely can even the Spaniards or the Portuguese vie with us in such an instance of infatuated intolerance.

That there is, independently of our present danger, as it were a physical and moral necessity for throwing the army

and

and navy open to the Irish population, is apparent, we conceive, from the statement offered in the following passage:

'The merits of the new military plan as tending to disburthen the population of Ireland, and to augment the strength of the empire, were clearly, justly, and with a perfect knowledge of the subject, detailed by Lord Grenville and Lord Howick. These ministers had certainly the advantage of most accurate sources of information. There was, however, one branch of the subject, and a most momentous and extensive one, which, if I recollect right, remained untouched in the several discussions. It was one of the evils of the old penal system, that it very much narrowed the means of disposing and providing for young men in the several classes, which are raised above the thought or necessity of manual labour. The service of the Continental Powers constituted for a long time the outlet for this youth, as I have just observed with regret, in tracing the connection formed and not yet obliterated between Ireland and these countries. During the space of about forty years, under the promising circumstances of our domestic situation, this resort declined, and for nearly the last twenty, it ceased entirely; whilst at the same time the number of families daily augments, to whom such an outlet is desirable. Will not the persons so thrown upon the country, be ready leaders of discontent? The bayonet to be sure is a resource for obedience; let them mean as they may, it is the resource to which the doctrines of my Lord Sidmouth and Mr. Percival tend, when these doctrines are applied to the great population of this country; and let me ask, do the circumstances of Britain at this day, allow this option of the bayonet, as the mode of managing its most disposeable force, one fourth of its population? Such is the uncalculating improvidence of Ireland, that our National Bank, giving employment to about five hundred persons as clerks, declines to admit Catholics in the number. Ministers will not allow the sword, nor the Directors of the Bank the pen. What then is to be the destination of this people? Here again is another of the hopeful expectations formed with respect to Ireland. Idleness is generally the cause of mischief; desperation in this instance is superadded, and it is expected, that discontent and turbulence shall not follow!!!'

We are also informed that

'Few were at a loss to perceive, several months before the dissolution of the late Ministry, that a plan was on foot to render Government unpopular with a part of the Protestants, if it restrained certain indiscreet or intemperate proceedings; or with the Catholics, if falling short of the general tenor of its language, the suspicion or imputation could arise of half measures or connivance.—The snare was not laid in vain; men perhaps superior to that scene of little factious meanness, in which they were condemned to drudge, were outwitted by persons possessing not one tenth of their good sense, and but a limited portion of their integrity or intentions.'

The author thus describes the body of which he is the advocate, and thus expresses his sentiments of those who lately attempted to ameliorate its situation:

'I appre-

'I apprehend that many persons of upright views and good sense, are, in this respect, misled; considering the Irish Catholics in the light of a sect, and not as they truly are, a people. I believe them even to exceed Mr. Newenham's calculation (solid and ingenious as that calculation undoubtedly is) of five millions; but, which is infinitely more important, these millions are formed into regular society, with all its ranks, classes, and gradations. A gentry cultivated and enlightened; acute and flourishing merchants; prosperous traders of every denomination; professional men, trained in science, and exercised in the practice of business; a body of Clergy, regularly classed, established in public opinion, and maintaining themselves even more by the respect which their conduct secures, than by the influence of their situation; learned divines; eloquent preachers; charitable establishments for the education of the poor in every principal town, to the care of which amiable and exemplary persons of either sex devote themselves, (I do not pause to praise a deed far beyond my powers of commendation) secluding themselves from society, and abandoning every concern for this occupation of benevolence.

'This is the ground upon which the public men of this empire are now called upon to act; this is the people whom the late administration projected to attract to the state by a closer interest, and whom certain of their successors appear disposed to repudiate. Without any other than general means of observation, there appears to me in the displaced cabinet, that sense of character, that enlargement of views, that cultivation of intellect, which attract involuntary respect. The unbiassed and independant tribute of that respect I do sincerely pay them. Their views of policy, with respect to this ill-fated country, were accurate and just, and although unsuccessful in their wishes, they have unequivocally demonstrated, "too high indeed the price of knowledge," the sincerity of their intentions: upon these topics there is no second opinion. What I consider to have been injudicious, or imperfect in the management of Ireland, under their influence, is stated candidly, and with a view to better hopes; but with the advantage of experience, and in the calm moment of retrospect, it is much more easy to descant on what you suppose to have been done amiss, than to have chosen your path with steadiness and decision, under a choice of difficulties, in the fiery ordeal of discordant parties and pretensions. "Their fall from power, which like death canonizes and sanctifies a great character," forbids me to deal lightly with the merits of these eminent statesmen.'

We regard the ministration of relief to Ireland not only as just, wise, and expedient, but as a measure that is urgently pressed on us if we value our very safety and existence; and we have some consolation in knowing this to be a sentiment which daily becomes more and more prevalent among the best informed men of all parties.

Jo.

ART. IX. *An authentic Narrative of the proceedings of the expedition under the commmand of Brigadier-General Craufurd,* until its arrival at Monte Video; with an account of the Operations against Buenos Ayres under the command of Lieutenant General Whitelocke. By an Officer of the expedition. 8vo. pp. 220. and two Maps. 10s. 6d. Boards. Printed for the author, and sold at No. 18. Chapel Place, Oxford Chapel; also by Egerton, Whitehall.

IT is stated by the author that this narrative was originally written by way of enabling him to dissipate the tediousness incidental to long voyages, and for the amusement of his friends, without being intended for publication: but that unexpected events, and not the little vanity of becoming a journalist, determined him to follow the advice of those who, after having perused the manuscript, recommended that it should be committed to the press. Above all, however, he says, he was actuated by a strong sentiment of *duty towards his companions in arms;* who, to obviate the imputation of their having disgraced the British army, by being deficient in those qualities which peculiarly constitute the character of its soldiers, require to have circumstantial details of their operations against *Buenos Ayres* laid before the public eye. He admits the possibility of his having been misled in some few instances by wrong information: but he asserts with confidence that, as he was a spectator of the most important events which he records, he has stated them correctly. His observations, he says, on the failure of the attack of that place, and on the apparent causes of that misfortune, arose from a lively sense of its being disgraceful and injurious to every individual concerned in it; and the justice of them, he is satisfied, will be both allowed and supported by the voice of his fellow soldiers.

We need scarcely remark that, under these circumstances, it would have been very desirable that this detail should have been sanctioned by the writer's name. He has, however, chosen to withhold it; and though it has reached our ears, we do not feel authorized to repeat it in this place. We proceed, then, to observe that he divides his narrative into two parts; the first of which contains an account of the voyage performed and the places visited by the expedition under Brigadier Craufurd, from its departure on the 12th November 1806 from Falmouth, to its arrival at Monte Video on the 12th of June 1807. The second part relates to the transactions in South America, in the short period during which our troops maintained a footing in it; or from the time of the capture of Buenos Ayres by General Beresford, 25th June 1806, to the 7th

of

of July 1807, when the definitive treaty for our evacuating it was signed.

The author does not pretend to have added much to the descriptions given by others of St. Jago, the Cape of Good Hope, and St. Helena: but he conceives that his detail of the winds, weather, and other circumstances, on which the voyages materially depended, may afford useful information to those who may perform them hereafter, or pursue the same tracks. His accounts seem to be in general sufficiently explicit, except when he speaks of military works: in regard to which they are certainly defective, through inattention to the particulars that are principally connected with the importance, utility, advantages, and defences of such works. His phraseology on such ocassions is far from being classical or correct. In describing, for instance, the works at the Cape of Good Hope, he says;

'The castle situated to the eastward of the town is a regular pentagon, said to have been constructed by the famous Cohorn on his way to *India*. Round the counterscarp is raised a second parapet, *fronted* by another ditch, which is again defended by a covered way to the eastward. This second parapet is partly washed, at high water, by the sea, and mounted, in this direction, with very heavy guns and mortars. There is but one entrance into the body of the place, and it is on the town side; but there is a passage through the counterguard leading into the country; both are defended with ravelins, that in front of the eastern passage having retired flanks. The whole of the works are reveted with stone. From the castle runs an intrenchment along the beach, flanked at certain distances with artillery: at the distance of about one thousand yards it takes a *rectangular direction*, and ascends for about seven hundred yards: this last face is defended by four small redoubts, and the only parts of the lines that are kept in any state of repair, the intermediate spaces being entirely in ruins. A *heavy* battery covering a strong tower, called after General Craig, is placed about a half mile in advance of the lines: two blockhouses about one mile asunder stand nearly at the foot of the perpendicular rock above *them*. An enemy in possession of these two buildings would render the whole of the works already described perfectly useless. To the North-west of the town, and at the bottom of the *Lion's Rump*, are three *heavy* batteries, which command the entrance of the Bay in this direction, as well as a great part of it after ships have entered.'

Now this description is not only defective, but is also in some parts confused and hardly intelligible. The narrator does not give the length of the exterior side, from which the pentagonal citadel, or castle, as he calls it, has been constructed; the height of a section of the work and of either ravelin; the widths of the ditches in front of them; the lengths

lengths of the flanks and faces of any bastion; the magnitude of its flanked angles, &c. &c. He talks of the *Town-side* of it, instead of the front nearest to or looking towards the town; of intermediate *spaces* instead of intermediate *works* being entirely in ruins; of one part of the works *taking a rectangular direction*, instead of forming a right angle with another part of them, &c. He has also certainly mistaken a ravelin for a counterguard, since the passages into and out of works are almost always in the curtains, and are covered by the ravelins when there are any: but counterguards are never placed opposite to the curtains, being constructed beyond the main ditch for the purpose of covering the saliant angles and faces of the bastions, and are generally called *envelopes* from the circumstance of their embracing those parts.

It appears that General Beresford's misfortune chiefly arose from his having concentrated his force in the castle of Buenos Ayres, which is completely commanded by all the adjoining houses; and that it might have been avoided, had he occupied El Retiro.

The author's plan of Monte Video has every appearance of being correct; and it shews, beyond the possibility of contradiction, that the place is altogether untenable and defenceless. It seems to be, throughout its whole extent, devoid of regular defences: the citadel is on too small a scale to be of any use; and had the town been surrounded with a substantial rampart, properly reveted with masonry, we might have fired at the wall near the South-gate for six months, at the distance of six hundred yards, without making a practicable breach in it. We have before alluded to this subject; and we repeat our observation that, if our not establishing batteries nearer to the point of attack was owing to the want of intrenching tools for carrying on approaches, a culpable neglect prevailed in some department which ought to be investigated, and which occasioned an unnecessary destruction of a number of brave men. The writer says that 'the battery of six guns raised against the South-gate was on the prolongation of the lower flank of the demi-bastion protecting it:' but a demi-bastion has only one flank. The work near that gate is not what is usually called a demi-bastion, but is the half of a bastion *coupé* or *accolé*, or of what is termed *un bastion en tenaille*, consisting of a flank, a face, and a demi-tenaille, across the direction of which prolonged the battery was erected. Had the breach been made close to this demi-tenaille, the troops in their assault would have been covered from the fire of its guns.

The principal circumstances, which attract the attention of the reader in this account of the attack on Buenos Ayres,—a town perfectly open, and not even partially inclosed with works of any kind,—are the following:

1st. That the assault was delayed till day-light, by means of which the troops were distinctly seen by the Spaniards, and in course were the more severely galled and annoyed by their fire.

2d. That, instead of directing the attack solely on El Retiro and Residentia, which over-look and command the town, the leaders of the various columns were directed to penetrate along different streets to the Rio de la Plata, without any instructions in regard to what they were to do when they should reach it, the means by which they were to communicate with and support one another, or the points on which a retreat (if necessary) should be effected.

3d. That the plan of attack was such as to prevent either courage or perseverance from being successful, the troops being prohibited on pain of death from firing a single shot, and ordered to use the bayonet only, against brick walls and houses strongly barricaded.

4th. That the bombardment, which the Spaniards dreaded more than any thing, and which their own officers allowed would have compelled them to yield up the place, since they had nothing to oppose to it but a few guns without cover, was ordered to be discontinued about half an hour after it commenced.

5th. That, after we had obtained possession of El Retiro and Residentia, the necessity is not apparent for General Whitelocke having agreed to such a treaty, or convention, as he concluded with the enemy.

6th. That the Commander in chief, with General Gower, and their staff, when the army was sent into Buenos Ayres, remained behind, just within the sound of cannon.

The author appears to narrate facts with candour, expressing his sentiments sometimes strongly, but by no means acrimoniously. *Pendente lite*, we also abstain from farther remarks.

Glen.

Art. X. *Memoirs of John Lord de Joinville, Grand Seneschal of Champagne*, written by Himself: containing a History of Part of the Life of Louis IX. King of France, surnamed St. Louis, including an Account of that King's Expedition to Egypt in the Year 1248. To which are added, the Notes and Dissertations of M. Du Cange on the above; together with the Dissertations of M. le Baron de la Bastie on the Life of St. Louis, M. l'Evesque de la Ravaliere and M. Falconet on the Assassins of Syria, from the *Mémoires de l'Academie de Belles Lettres et Inscriptions de France*. The whole translated by Thomas Johnes, Esq. 2 vols. 4to. 4l. 4s. Boards. Printed at the Hafod Press; and sold in London by Longman and Co. 1807.

It was natural that Mr. Johnes, who had deservedly gained high credit by his edition of Froissart, (see our last number,) should be requested to undertake a translation of the father of the vernacular French historians. We are glad that he has been so solicited; and we congratulate our countrymen on the opportunity which they now have of becoming acquainted with the shrewd and ingenuous Lord de Joinville, and with the pious St. Louis, his friend and master, one of the best kings with whom any age has been blessed.

From modern compilers, however able and faithful, we can gain only a very imperfect knowlege of past times. If we would know the character of remote ages, the persons who figured in them, and the events which distinguished them, we must peruse our original historians; we must have recourse to narratives composed at the period: for the rudest documents of time will often suggest to the reflecting mind more real information than whole volumes of a modern date. As well might we expect to learn the manners and sentiments of the heroic ages of Greece from Pope, or the true design of Virgil from Dryden, as the genius and character of the English and French of the days of chivalry from Rapin and Hume, or Mezeray and Daniel. Not satisfied, then, with a dim and confused light on these points, we must give some attention to cotemporary monuments; and adepts in this pursuit well know how to derive instruction from the legends, the poems, the homilies, the ordinances, and the private muniments, which have escaped the general wreck.

On the present occasion, Mr. Johnes is the mere translator; and the antiquary and collector of texts, who appears to so much advantage in the late edition of Froissart, is here perfectly invisible. Connected with this work, we admit, are matters which ought to be undertaken only by a Frenchman: but we could mention others to which Mr. Johnes was fully equal, and by discussing which he would have greatly enhan-

ced the service which, as translator, he has rendered to the public. It was proper that Joinville should be accompanied by the notes of du Cange: but subsequent researches have rendered corrections necessary in some places, and additions in others. The same observations will apply to most of the Dissertations; yet still, in their unimproved state, we do not regret to see them placed within the reach of the curious English reader: nor are we displeased to find included in these volumes the remarks of the Baron de Bastie. Though by no means a sagacious critic, he is not wanting in learning; and it must be allowed that, though he might have made more of his subject, he furnishes us with information which is not elsewhere to be obtained, and satisfies us as to the authenticity of this antient production, generally. Internal evidence, which lends effectual aid to the facts and reasonings of the noble antiquary, also induces us to believe that the liberties taken with this venerable monument of a rude and tempestuous period are greater than have been in general stated. We should conjecture that to point these out, with something approaching to certainty, would not be a difficult task to an acute and judicious French antiquary; and if pursuits of this kind should ever again revive in France, we hope to see this service attempted.

The first of these volumes contains the genealogy of the house of Joinville: a dissertation on the life of St. Louis written by the Lord de Joinville, by M. Le Baron de la Bastie: and the history of St. Louis by John Lord de Joinville, with notes by Charles du Fresne, Sieur du Cange.

As Mr. Johnes chuses scarcely to appear *in propriâ personâ* on the present occasion, we must follow his example, and introduce our readers to the venerable Seneschal by means of the French work, of which he has availed himself for a similar purpose:

'Two academicians differ in opinion with Du Cange, as to the year in which the lord de Joinville was born.

'M. de la Bastie fixes on the year 1228 or 1229, and M. l'Evêque de la Ravaliere on 1224, while Du Cange asserts that he was born in 1220.

'It will be sufficient to say here, that Joinville was attached, from his youngest years, to the court of Thibaud, king of Navarre, and count of Champagne, and that he early acquired all the knowledge of that age, and shewed himself afterwards equal to his most enlightened contemporaries.

'His society being courted, on account of his family-connections and his personal qualities, he accompanied Louis IX. in all his expeditions, excepting that to Tunis, which he declined, from a foresight of its unfortunate termination. The familiarity with which

Louis

Louis honoured him, gave him an opportunity of tracing the links of every event of his reign. The candour and simplicity of the recital which he has left us of these events afford strong proofs of his exactness. He does not extend his account of facts farther than what he personally witnessed.

'We do not think the ingenuous narration of this loyal servant of St. Louis can be read without emotion, when, having given his opinion in the council to remain in Palestine, contrary to that of the other members, he is fearful of having lost the affection of his virtuous master. We imagine ourselves present at one of those affecting scenes, when Henry IV. and Sully made up their quarrels.

'These memoirs, which Joinville finished in 1309, and published after the death of Philip the fair, have always been highly esteemed by the public.

'Although they include a space but of six years, they give us sufficient information respecting the military system of those days, and the principles of administration adopted by St. Louis. They present to us a faithful picture of the customs and manners of our ancestors: they charm us by the affecting simplicity of stile, which is one of its greatest merits; and if we wish to become acquainted with the noble mind of St. Louis, it is in them displayed with the most exact truth.

'Among the different editions of these memoirs, the two most approved of are the edition of Du Cange printed in 1668, and the one published by the late M. Capperonnier in 1761. Each of them makes one volume folio.'—

'The remarks and dissertations with which Du Cange has enriched his edition, clear up a number of important facts contained in the memoirs of Joinville. They throw the greatest light on many points which are particularly connected with the customs of that period, with the institution of chivalry and its duties, and which forms a part of the French national antiquities.'

Concerning the extracts from the Arabic manuscripts, which are here translated (as we presume) from the French version, and not from the originals, it is truly observed that 'they give details which are both instructive and pleasing to read, and confirm the truth of the narratives of the Lord de Joinville.'

Of the pious turn of the good king Louis IX., we have a striking instance in the ensuing account;

'When returning from Asia we were driven near to the isle of Cyprus by a wind called Garbun which is not one of the principal winds that rule the sea; and our vessel struck with such force on a rock as frightened our sailors, who, in despair, tore their clothes and beards. The good king leaped out of his bed bare-footed, with only a gown on, and ran to throw himself on his knees before the holy sacrament like one instantly expecting death. Shortly after, the weather became calm. On the morrow, the king called me and said, 'Seneschal,

chal, know that God has shewn to us a part of his great power; for one of these trifling winds, which scarcely deserves a name, had almost drowned the king of France, his queen, children and family; and St. Anceaune declares, they are the menaces of our Lord, as if God had said, 'Now see and feel that if I had willed it, you would all have been drowned.' The good king added, 'Lord God, why dost thou menace us? for the threat thou utterest is neither for thy honour nor profit; and if thou hadst drowned us all, thou wouldst not have been richer nor poorer: thy menaces, therefore, must be intended for our advantage, and not for thine, if we be capable of understanding and knowing them. By these threatenings,' said the holy king, 'we ought to know, that if we have in us the smallest thing displeasing to God, we should instantly drive it from us; and, in like manner, we should diligently perform every thing that we suppose would give him pleasure and satisfaction. If we thus act, our Lord will give us more in this world and in the next than we ourselves can imagine. But should we act otherwise, he will do to us as the master does to his wicked servant; for if the wicked servant will not correct himself, in consequence of the menaces he receives, his master punishes him in his body, and in his goods until death, or farther were it possible. In suchwise will our Lord punish the perverse sinner who shall not be reclaimed by the threats which he hears; and he will be the more heavily stricken in body and goods.'

If the human mind, at this time, could not boast of comprehensive views, and was little accustomed to close reasoning or logical precision, it appears not to have been deficient in address and shrewdness. The Lord de Joinville tells us that 'the good king took infinite pains to make him firmly believe the christian laws which God has given us;' adding,

'He then asked me if I knew the name of my father. I answered, that his name was Simon. And how do you know that? said he. I replied, that I was certain of it, and believed it firmly, because my mother had told it me several times. Then, added he, you ought perfectly to believe the articles of the faith which the apostles of our Lord have testified to you, as you have heard the credo chaunted every Sunday. He told me that a bishop of Paris, whose Christian name was William informed him that a very learned man in sacred theology once came to converse with, and consult him; and that when he first opened his case he wept most bitterly. The bishop said to him, 'Master, do not thus lament and bewail, for there cannot be any sinner, however enormous, but that God has the power to pardon.' 'Ah,' replied the learned man, 'know, my lord bishop, that I cannot do any thing but weep; for I am much afraid that, in one point, I am an unbeliever, in not being well assured with respect to the holy sacrament that is placed on the altar, according to what the holy church teaches and commands to be believed. This is what my mind cannot receive; and I believe,' added he, 'that it is caused by the temptation of the enemy.'

'Master,'

'Master,' answered the bishop, 'now tell me when the enemy thus tempts you, or leads you into this error, is it pleasing to you?' 'Not at all,' said he; 'on the contrary, it is very disgusting, and displeases me more than I can tell you.'

'Well, I ask you again,' said the bishop, 'if ever you accepted of money or worldly goods, to deny, with your mouth, the holy sacrament on the altar, or the other sacraments of the church?' 'You may be truly assured,' answered the learned man, 'that I have never accepted money, or worldly goods, for such puposes; and that I would rather have my limbs cut off, one by one, while I was alive, than in any way to deny these sacraments.'

'The bishop then remonstrated with him on the great merit which he gained in the sufferings of such temptations, and added, 'You know, master, that the king of France is now carrying on a war against the king of England. You know, likewise, that the castle situated nearest to the frontiers of each monarch is la Rochelle, in Poitou; now tell me, if the good king of France was to nominate you governor of the castle of la Rochelle, on the frontiers, and to make me governor of the castle of Montlehery, which is in the heart of France, to whom would the king, at the end of the war, feel himself most obliged, you or me, for having prevented the loss of his castles?'

'Certainly, sir,' replied the learned man, 'I should suppose it would be me, and for this good reason, that I had well guarded la Rochelle, as being in a more dangerous situation,' 'Master,' answered the bishop, 'I assure you that my heart is like the castle of Montlehery; for I am perfectly convinced of the truth respecting the holy sacrament displayed on the altar, as well as the other sacrament, without having the most trifling doubts on their subject. I must however tell you, that whatever good-will God the Creator bears me, because I believe his commandments without doubting, he will have double satisfaction in you, for having preserved to him your heart in the midst of perplexity and tribulation; and that for no earthly good, nor for any distress that adversity might bring on your body, you would ever deny or abandon your faith in his religion. It is for this reason, I say, that your state is more pleasing to him than mine; and I am much rejoiced thereat, and entreat that you will keep it in your remembrance, for he will succour you in your distress.'

'The learned man, on hearing these words, threw himself on his knees before the bishop, and felt his mind much at ease, and was well contented with the bishop's comfortable advice.'

Though our Saviour commands us to "judge not," how long have Christians been in learning that forbearance on account of religious differences is a virtue? To this virtue, even the good Louis was an utter stranger; since, in relating a dispute between some Christians and Jews, he concluded by observing to the Seneschal:

'I tell you, that no one, however learned or perfect a theologian he may be, ought to dispute with the Jews bu

the layman, whenever he hears the Christian faith contemned, should defend it, not only by words, but with a sharp-edged sword, with which he should strike the scandalizers and disbelievers, until it enter their bodies as far as the hilt.'

Du Cange, in a note on this place, penned in 1666, very cautiously discovers a decided leaning to the side of toleration; and he quotes a Greek writer, who held errors in religious matters pardonable, "forasmuch," says he, "as those who embrace these erroneous and heretical opinions commonly do so from the firm belief which they have of their truth." He refers, among other works on the subject, to the exquisite preface of Thuanus, which no unbiassed mind can peruse without being a convert to religious freedom in its utmost extent.

The Lord de Joinville confirms preceding accounts of the scandalous behaviour of the Christians, in the course of these expeditions; and if, under the immediate eye of a Prince so vigilant, powerful, and religious as Louis IX., the troops could commit such irregularities as are here stated, what may we not suppose their excesses to have been when placed under no such restraint? This honest narrator relates that

'The king's officers, when they were at their ease, and comfortably lodged in the city of Damietta, instead of well treating and entertaining the merchants, and those who followed the army with provisions, hired out to them stalls and workmen at as dear a rate as they possibly could. This conduct was spread abroad to distant countries; and those who would have supplied the army with provisions delayed doing so, which was a great evil and loss.

'The barons, knights and others, who ought to have attended to their money-concerns, and to have practised economy, as a resource in times of need, began to give sumptuous banquets in rivalship to each other, with the utmost abundance of the most delicious meats. The commonalty likewise gave themselves up to debauchery, and violated both women and girls. Great were the evils in consequence; for it became necessary for the king to wink at the greatest liberties of his officers and men. The good king even told me, that at a stone's throw round his own pavilion were several brothels kept by his personal attendants. Other disorders were going forward, and to a greater extent than any person had hitherto seen.'

The accounts which the good Seneschal gives of what he saw and learnt in Egypt are descriptive of the simplicity of those days, and present more of truth mixed with fable than we might have expected:

'It is proper that I say something here of the river which runs through Egypt, and which comes from the terrestrial paradise; for such things should be known to those who are desirous of understanding the subject I am writing on. This river differs from al others, for the more brooks fall into a large river, the more it i

divided

divided into small streamlets, and spread over a country; but this river has not such aids, and seems always the same. When arrived in Egypt, it spreads its waters over the country. About the period of St. Remy's day, it expands itself into seven branches, and thence flows over the plains. When the waters are retired, the labourers appear, and till the ground with ploughs without wheels, and then sow wheat, barley, rice, cummin, which succeed so well that it is not possible to have finer crops.

'No one can say whence this annual increase of water comes, except from God's mercy. Were it not to happen, Egypt would produce nothing from the very great heat of that country; for it is near to the rising sun, and it scarcely ever rains but at very long intervals.

'This river is quite muddy from the crowds of people of that and other countries who, towards evening, come thither to seek water to drink. They put into their vessels which hold it four almonds or four beans, which they shake well, and on the morrow it is wondrous clear and fit to drink. When this river enters Egypt, there are expert persons accustomed to the business, who may be called the fishermen of this stream, and who in the evenings cast their nets into the water, and in the mornings frequently find many spices in them, which they sell in these countries dearly, and by weight; such as cinnamon, ginger, rhubarb, cloves, lignum-aloes, and other good things. It is the report of the country, that they come from the terrestrial paradise, and that the wind blows them down from these fine trees, as it does in our forests the old dry wood. What falls into the river is brought down with it, and collected by merchants, who sell it to us by weight.

'I heard in the country of Babylon, that the sultan had frequently attempted to learn whence this river came, by sending experienced persons to follow the course of it. They carried with them a bread called biscuit, for they would not have found any on their route, and on their return reported, that they had followed the course of the river until they came to a large mountain of perpendicular rocks, which it was impossible to climb, and over these rocks fell the river. It seemed to them, that on the top of this mountain were many trees; and they said, they had seen there many strange wild beasts, such as lions, serpents, elephants, and other sorts, which came to gaze at them as they ascended the river. These travellers, not daring to advance further, returned to the sultan.'

We insert a part of the writer's description of the *Greek fire*, omitting his statements of the terror which it occasioned, and the pious reflections and acts which it called forth:

'One night the Turks brought forward an engine, called by them La Perriere, a terrible engine to do mischief, and placed it opposite to the chas-chateils, which sir Walter de Curel and I were guarding by night. From this engine they flung such quantities of greek fire that it was the most horrible sight ever witnessed.

'As soon, therefore, as the Turks threw their fires, we flung ourselves on our hands and knees, as a wise man had advised; and this

this time they fell between our two cats into a hole in front, which our people had made to extinguish them; and they were instantly put out by a man appointed for that purpose. This greek fire, in appearance, was like a large tun, and its tail was of the length of a long spear: the noise which it made was like to thunder; and it seemed a great dragon of fire flying through the air, giving so great a light with its flame, that we saw in our camp as clearly as in broad day. Thrice this night did they throw the fire from La Perriere, and four times from cross-bows.'

The following passage was disbelieved by Voltaire, but Gibbon was inclined to give it credit:

'When the knights of the haulecca had slain the sultan, the admirals ordered their trumpets and nacquaires to sound merrily before the king's tent; and it was told the king, that the admirals had holden a council and were very desirous to elect him sultan of Babylon. The king one day asked me, if I were of opinion, that if the kingdom of Babylon had been offered him, he ought to have taken it? I answered, that if he had, he would have done a foolish thing, seeing they had murdered their lord. Notwithstanding this, the king told me, he should have scarcely refused it.

'This project only failed from the admirals saying among themselves, that the king was the proudest Christian they ever knew; and that, if they elected him sultan, he would force them to turn Christians, or have them put to death. This they said from observing, that whenever he quitted his lodgings, he made the sign of the Cross on the ground, and crossed his body all over. The Saracens added, that if their Mahomet had allowed them to suffer the manifold evils that God had caused the king to undergo, they would never have had any confidence in him, nor paid him their adorations.'

As the latter celebrated writer comments on the credibility of this statement, he might have observed that the supposition of the Frenchman makes his venerable countryman a deliberate and wilful falsifier.

It would seem that the pious king was subject to sudden gusts of passion; and a passage which substantiates this charge also shews that Princes, in those days, allowed a greater familiarity on the part of their subjects than is permitted in modern courts:

'When it was near Easter, I left Acre, and went to visit the king at Cæsarea, where he was employed in fortifying and inclosing it. On my arrival, I found him in conversation with the legate, who had never left him during this expedition to the holy land. On seeing me, he quitted the legate, and, coming to me, said, 'Lord de Joinville, is it really true, that I have only retained you until this ensuing Easter? Should it be so, I beg you will tell me how much I shall give you from this Easter to that of this time twelvemonths.'

'I replied, that I was not come to him to make such a bargain, and

and that I would not take more of his money; but I would offer other terms, which were, that he should promise never to fly into a passion for any thing I should say to him, which was often the case, and I engaged, that I would keep my temper whenever he refused what I should ask.'

'When he heard my terms, he burst into laughter, and said that he retained me accordingly: then, taking me by the hand, he led me before the legate to his council, and repeated the convention that had been agreed to between us. Every one was joyous on hearing it, and consequently I remained.'

Louis's personal character is thus farther illustrated:

'I will now speak of the state and mode of living of the king, after his return from Palestine. In regard to his dress, he would never more wear minever or squirrel furs, nor scarlet robes, nor gilt spurs, nor use stirrups His dress was of camlet or persian, and the fur trimmings of his robes were the skins of garnuletes or the legs of hares. He was very sober at his meals, and never ordered any thing particular or delicate to be cooked for him, but took patiently whatever was set before him. He mixed his wine with water according to its strength, and drank but one glass. He had commonly at his meals many poor persons behind his chair, whom he fed, and then ordered money to be given to them. After dinner, he had his chaplains who said grace for him; and when any noble person was at table with him, he was an excellent companion, and very friendly. He was considered as by far the wisest of any in his council; and as a proof of his wisdom, whenever any thing occurred that demanded immediate attention, he never waited for his council, but gave a speedy and decided answer.'—

'I have been constantly with him for twenty-two years, but never in my life, for all the passions I have seen him in, did I hear him swear or blaspheme God, his holy mother, or any of the saints. When he wished to affirm any thing, he said, 'Truly it is so;' or, 'In truth, it is not so.' It was very clear that on no earthly considerations would he deny his God; for when the sultan and admirals of Egypt wanted to make that the condition, should he break the treaty, he would never consent; and when he was told this was the last proposal of the Turks, he replied, that he would rather die than commit such a crime.

'I never heard him name or mention the word devil if it was not in some book that made it necessary; and it is very disgraceful to the princes and kingdom of France to suffer it, and hear the name; for you will see that in any dispute one will not say three words to another in abuse, but he will add, 'Go to the devil,' or other bad words. Now it is very shocking thus to send man or woman to the devil, when they are by baptism become the creatures of God. In my castle of Joinville, whoever makes use of this word is instantly buffeted, and the frequency of bad language is abolished there.'

We must now take our leave of this antient document; which we have no doubt has been subjected to numerous in-

terpolations and great liberties, but which, it is abundantly clear, is in the main authentic, and curious as well as interesting.

The second volume includes the Dissertations of M. du Cange; extracts from such Arabian manuscripts as speak of historical events relative to the reign of St. Louis; explanations relative to the old Man of the mountain, Prince of the Assassins, by M. L'Evesque de la Ravaliere; and two Dissertations on the Assassins, by M. Falconet.—Though we admit the value of these papers, which form acceptable additions to the stores of learning placed within the reach of our countrymen, yet so slight is their connection with the venerable narrative of which we have been giving an account, that we do not deem it proper to dwell on them at any length. We would also observe, and in doing this it is far from our intention to derogate from the high and acknowleged claims of M. du Cange, that criticism had not in his time attained the perspicacity with which it has since surprised the world; and that most of the subjects, which he treats in these performances, have been since more fully investigated. Still it must be allowed that his papers afford much curious matter which is not elsewhere to be found; as a proof of which, let one or two instances suffice.

Respecting the Oriflamme, or the banner of St. Denis, of which so much is said in the early parts of the history of France, M. du Cange thus writes:

'It was the banner, or usual standard, which the abbot and monks of the royal abbey of St. Denis made use of in their private wars; that is to say, in those which they undertook to recover their possessions from the hands of usurpers, or to prevent them from being seized upon. But as their ecclesiastical state did not allow them to use arms personally, they delegated this to a proxy, who received their standard from the hands of the abbot, and bore it before him in battle. This was the real use made of the oriflamme, although some learned persons have written otherwise, and have advanced what is but little conformable to truth.'—

'The name of Oriflamme was given to this standard because it was slit up from the bottom to resemble flames, or perhaps from its being of a red colour: when it fluttered in the wind, it appeared at a distance like flames, and, besides, the lance to which it was fixed was gilded.—The oriflamme was then the particular banner of the abbot and monastery of St. Denis, which they had borne in their wars by their proxies, who, in quality of defenders or protectors of monasteries and churches, undertook to lead their vassals in the defence of their rights, and to bear their standards in war: hence they have been called Standard-bearers to the church, 'Signiferi Ecclesiarum.' The counts of Vexin and of Pontoise had this title in the monastery of Saint Denis, of which they were the proxies and guardians, and in

in this quality they bore the oriflamme in the wars which they undertook in the defence of its property. From this the banner has been by authors more commonly called the standard of St. Denis, not because it was preserved in the church of that monastery, but because it was the banner usually borne in the wars in which this abbey was concerned. We may therefore conclude that it was not borne by our kings in their wars until they were become proprietors of the counties of Pontoise and Mante; that is to say, of the Vexin, which happened during the reign of Philippes I. or of Louis le gros, his son.'

M. du C. is also of opinion that the country of Vexin fell into the domain of the kings of France, about the time of Louis le gros;

'And that it was in this quality they first bore the standard of St. Denis, or the oriflamme, in their wars. History is silent on the subject before the reign of Louis le gros; for I pay no attention to those who have advanced, that it was known from the times of Dogebert, Pepin, and Charlemagne, all such histories as have been so fertile in fables being very properly reputed apocryphal.

'We may then justly conclude that Louis le gros was the first of our monarchs who, in quality of count of the Vexin, took the oriflamme from the altar of St. Denis, and had it borne in his armies, as the principal banner of the protector of his kingdom, whose succour he invoked by his cries of battle, more especially when he learnt that Henry V. king of Germany, was marching his troops into France.

'It has happened, consequently, that our monarchs, who possessed themselves of the rights of these counts, have used this banner in their own wars, as being the standard that bore the name of the protector of their kingdom, as I have before noticed, taking it from off the altar of the church of St. Denis, with the same ceremonies and prayers that were usually observed when it was delivered into the hands of the counts du Vexin, for the private wars of the monastery.'—

'Several persons have fallen into the error of believing that the oriflamme was never taken from the church of St. Denis but when our kings had unsuccessful wars, to repulse the enemy who was attacking their kingdom, or prevent themselves from being conquered. 'Et non mie quand on veut conquester autre pays,' as Juvenal des Ursins writes, in the year 1386 of his history; or when war was made on the infidels, as Froissart writes, because this standard was, doubtless, the principal one in our armies, whether the war was undertaken for the defence of the frontiers, or in the interior of the kingdom against the enemies of the state.

'During the reign of Philippes le bel, at the battle of Mons en Puele, in the year 1304, this same oriflamme was borne by Anseau de Chevreuse, a valiant knight, who there lost his life by suffocation from heat and thirst. Meier writes that the French lost this banner in the battle, and that it was taken and torn to pieces by the Flemings. The chronicle of Flanders, it is true, says that the night after the

the combat it was on the ground in the field of battle; but Guillaume Guiart, who was present, as he himself tells us, relates that the oriflamme lost in this battle was not the true one, but a counterfeit, made by order of the king, to excite, on that occasion, the ardour of his soldiers.

'We need not, therefore, be surprised if the Flemings were then persuaded they had gained possession of the oriflamme, as they had no rules to distinguish the false from the true one. This account is the more probable, because we read of its being immediately afterward displayed in our armies; for in the year 1315 the king, Louis Hutin, had it borne in his war against the same Flemings, and gave the guard of it to Herpin d'Erquery.

'From the reign of Charles VI. history makes no more mention of the oriflamme; it is therefore probable our monarchs ceased to have it borne in their armies from the time the English made themselves masters of Paris, and of the greater part of France, under the reign of Charles VII. who, having driven them out of his kingdom, introduced a new mode of making war, by the establishment of companies of ordinance. He likewise introduced the white ensign, which has since been the principal banner in our armies.'

The inquisitive will find ample gratification in the profusion of oriental learning displayed in M. Falconet's Dissertations, which close these volumes. We shall only refer to his account of the origin of the Assassins, and of the cause of that devotion to their Prince by which they were so fatally distinguished. The learned Academician, having mentioned some particulars of the several Mohammedan sects, observes that

'All these sectaries agree in allowing Ali to be only first Imam after Mohammed; but they count differently in respect to the Imamat, or the sovereign power, both as to temporal and spiritual matters,—a power which they regard as divine, and which cannot be disobeyed or resisted without impiety. It is in one of the branches of these five principal sectaries that we must seek the origin of the Assassins.

'Towards the middle of the second century of the Hegira, Giafar al Sadek, that is to say, the just, the sixth of the imams, admitted by the Persians, had several sons: Ismaël, the eldest, died before his father, and the sectaries pretend that the dignity of imam had descended to his issue, in preference to the collateral line. It is from this Ismaël the Assassins have taken the name of Ismaëliens. I could have wished that M. Schultens had made use of this name, in his translation of the life of Saladin, rather than that of Ismaëlites, the general name of Mohammedans, which the Jews give them, and which they have retained from the Arabians, their ancestors, long called so before the time of Mohammed. Pocock, in his translation of Abulfaragius, shews the same want of attention. M. d'Herbelot, more scrupulous in speaking of our sectaries, always says Ismaëliens, in consequence of an observation which he makes at the word 'Ismaëlioun.'

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'The faction we are speaking of at first excited great troubles, which ended in open rebellion. It was a branch of the descendants of Ismaël, son to Giafar, that took forcible possession of Egypt toward the end of the third century of the Hegira, and reigned there about three hundred years, under the name of Fatimite Caliphs: they were also called African Ismaëliens. Our Ismaëliens, who are those of Asia, established themselves two hundred years later; but their origin may be dated from the death of Giafar, in the middle of the second century of the Hegira, about the year 770 of our æra. This completes exactly the four hundred years which William of Tyre allows for the antiquity of their religion at the time he wrote, nearly in 1170.

'The chief dogmas of the Assassins were the metempsychosis, and the descent of the holy Spirit on the persons of their imams. A strong belief in this last point inspires them with that blind obedience to execute the orders of their soveriegn, as if he were a god, and makes them dare death with an intrepidity that is unexampled among the rest of mankind.

'Similar principles, drawn from Magism and Judaism, as well as from Mohammedanism, infected I know not how many enthusiasts prior to the establishment of the Assassins. There is great likelihood that the religion of the Indians entered also into the monstrous mixture of which the Ismaëliens composed theirs.

'Hassan-Sabah, their first chief in Persia, had gone as far as Khaschgar, a town in the Turkestan, to seek, in the dogmas of the Magi and Indians, wherewith to enrich those of his own sect. Already this whole country, even the more northern parts of it, was infected with Indianism (if I may be allowed the word). One of the first khans of the Turkish nation had prevailed on some Bonzes from China and India to come to him, in the seventh century of our æra, at the same moment when Mohammed began to establish his doctrines in the south of Asia. This I learnt from M. de Guignes, who told me he had found it in Chinese books.'—

'The Ismaëliens of Persia established themselves in the Kouhestan, in the fifth century of the Hegira, which answers to the eleventh of our æra, and maintained possession about one hundred and seventy years, under eight princes, the first of whom was Hassan Sabah, their founder, and the last Rokneddin, who only reigned one year. His predecessor Alaeddin (this is the true name) reigned for more than twenty-five years: it is not, therefore, surprising that he should be spoken of in preference to his successor, whose reign was so short, and so much the more, because the expedition of Holagou against the Assassins of Persia, which must have lasted for two or three years, must consequently have commenced during the life time of Alaeddin.'

Though we are much indebted to Mr. Johnes for laying open these treasures to the British public, we cannot help regretting, as we before intimated, that he did not enhance the favour by accompanying them with a few necessary elucidations. They are, however, presented to us in a handsome

some form, worthy of the translator and of his preceding publications, and are illustrated by a few plates and maps. A vignette, which decorates the title-page of each volume, represents the beautiful seat of Mr. Johnes in Cardiganshire, which has since been so unfortunately mutilated by fire.

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ART. XI. *Britain independent of Commerce;* or Proofs deduced from an Investigation into the true Causes of the Wealth of Nations, that our Riches, Prosperity, and Power, are derived from Resources inherent in ourselves, and would not be affected, even though our Commerce were annihilated. By William Spence, F.L.S. 8vo. pp. 85. 2s. Cadell and Davies.

SINCE this pamphlet is generally considered as containing the authority and apology for certain recent very important measures adopted by Great Britain, it requires a degree of attention to which it might not otherwise be deemed intitled. Indeed, we confess that, but for this circumstance, we should have dismissed it with very little ceremony; jealous as we own that we are of any attack on those doctrines of political economy which we were the first to hail, which we assisted to circulate, and which on all occasions we have uniformly asserted: being fully satisfied that the objections and cavils here raised against them could mislead none who were in the least acquainted with the subject.

Mr. Spence's avowed design is to furnish consolation to our countrymen under the decline of our manufactures and commerce: an object which he does not attempt to effect by pointing out new channels in which those streams may flow, but by endeavouring to shew that the things of which we are deprived are themselves of little or no value. He sets out with stating that 'manufactures do not create wealth,' and 'that the wealth which we derive from commerce is nothing.' These are the grand consolatory propositions which his tract labours to establish.

The axiom that manufactures are unproductive has not the charms, nor is it liable to the objections, which belong to novelty, since it was a leading tenet of the French economists: but it never, to our knowlege, obtained converts in this country, and has of late been very generally, if not universally, discarded in that which gave it birth; where it is rejected by Canard, Blanc de Volx, Garnier, Say, and Talleyrand, some of whom very properly animadvert on the defects of Dr. Smith's far more improved classification. Indeed, among the mystical paradoxes which that sect blended with most important truths, this has ever been considered as the one which had

the least colour of probability.—It must be recollected that the economists, notwithstanding their mistakes, rendered the greatest services to the science of political economy; they first traced the natural progress of industry in civilized society, taught us what were the objects in which wealth consisted, and demonstrated the superior value of agriculture, the advantages of internal over foreign commerce, the mischief of restraints on the freedom of trade, and the necessary connection which subsists between the prosperity of states and the liberty of the subject.

Sensible, therefore, of the value of what this school had done for mankind, and grateful for the information which he had personally derived from its discoveries, Dr. Smith treated its errors with a gentleness for which it would be otherwise somewhat difficult to account: but, if his manner were mild, his objections to the arrangement which consigned manufacturers to the class of unproductive labourers were abundantly decisive; and it weakens not the force of these objections, that his own superior classification is still somewhat lame. Yet it is this leading tenet in the creed of the economists which it is the intention of Mr. Spence to revive, and to which such important functions are allotted: a design in which he carries us back to the epoch of the appearance of the economical table, and writes as if things were now precisely in the same state in which they were at that period. He observes:

'The political economists who have investigated the sources of wealth, may be divided into two great classes; of which one may be termed the mercantile sect, and may be considered as including almost all the authors who have written on this subject, as well as almost all who talk upon it: the other, the agricultural sect, the principles of which were first promulgated by Mons. Quesnoi, and others in France, who have been generally known by the name of the French Economists, and who have had at any time but few followers.'

A writer who is thus negligent in making assertions, it may be expected, will not be very nice in drawing conclusions. So far is it from being the case that all who write and talk on political economy are of the mercantile sect, that we know of no performance which treats professedly of the subject, since the publication of Dr. Smith's great work, and that has attracted the least attention, in which their principles are avowed and defended; nor is it within our knowlege that any person, who is in the least conversant with these discussions, professes and supports them in conversation. How can a man, fresh from the perusal of Dr. Smith, and who appears to have derived from that great writer any information that he may possess on these matters, affix his name to such a paragraph? The *In-*

quiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations corrected the paradoxes of the economists, and gave a death-blow to the mercantile system. These sects, then, instead of dividing mankind on the leading points in political economy, can hardly be said at this day to have any existence.

To the other tenet of Mr. Spence, namely that which represents commerce as unproductive of wealth, we shall hereafter attend; only now observing that with regard to this also, he can establish no pretensions to novelty.

As these points are submitted by Mr. Spence to popular consideration, it may not be improper to take a view of them as they stand on popular grounds. If manufactures are unproductive of wealth, and if commerce does not enrich, how passing strange is the recent history of our own country! France drew a revenue from twenty-five millions of subjects; she has sunken her capital, has several times become bankrupt, and has rioted in the pillage of Europe, yet is she still obliged to assist her revenue by fresh plunder, and to quarter her myrmidons on peaceable states. England, on the contrary, has had all the powers of Europe in her pay, and has for a series of years acted the part of a principal in a struggle which human annals cannot parallel; and she stands at this moment, as yet with unshaken credit, the proud barrier against universal conquest. Have then the flourishing state of our manufactures, and the prosperity of our commerce, had no influence in all this; and has it been wholly effected by some marvellous quality in our soil, and by our pre-eminence in husbandry? Have the skill of our artisans, the operations of our machinery, the transactions of the Royal Exchange, and the equipments and arrivals in our ports, had less connection with this surprising phænomenon, than the Agricultural Society, and the Sheep-shearings at Woburn? If any man can soberly reflect on all this, and remain still a sceptic as to the powers of manufactures and commerce in enriching a country, let him transport himself one hundred years back, and see what was then the state of Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Paisley, and of the metropolis itself; let him compare the result of this inquiry with their actual condition, and will he then deny that their extension and their wealth have not kept pace with the growth of our manufactures, and the increase of our exports? Let him resort to the localities of those new creations reared by the mechanical genius and scientific attainments of an Arkwright, a Bolton, a Watt, and a Wedgwood; let him learn what these vicinities were within the memory of men yet alive, and compare them with the aspect which they now present. If, duly considering these facts, he will still maintain

tain that manufactures produce no wealth, and that commerce does not enrich, he would not be convinced even though *one were to rise from the dead*;—and with what is it that this light is attempted to be obscured? It is with nothing better than a stale paradox, clumsily formed and awkwardly dressed out; from which, even when robed in the charms of novelty, placed by the side of brilliant truths, and set off with consummate art, the sense and reason of mankind revolted; and which has long since been universally discarded, even by the disciples of that school in which it originated.

We might refer our readers to Dr. Smith for a satisfactory refutation of this tenet, but we are spared that necessity, since Mr. Spence's own work supplies us with ample means for the purpose. After having repeatedly stated that manufactures do not produce wealth, he thus expresses himself; 'in Britain, agriculture has only thriven in consequence of the influence of manufactures, and the increase of this influence is requisite to its further extension.' It follows, then, that manufactures, if not directly the source of wealth, operate indirectly on its production; because without them the grand source of wealth is, by the confession of Mr. Spence, barren; and, as affecting his argument, it matters not whether they immediately produce wealth, or are only requisite in order to render the immediate source productive: in the one and in the other case, their loss is equally fatal. If, then, manufactures are necessary to set in motion that which really generates wealth, what is become of the consolation offered to us under their decline? Mr. Spence also admits that 'as the manufacturers employed in fabricating the articles which commerce exports require food, they will, by their demand for the products of the earth, cause more land to be cultivated, and in a better manner, just as the manufacturers for home-consumption do, and thus indirectly increase the wealth of the nation.' For the purposes of the author's argument, what difference does it make whether manufactures increase the wealth of the nation directly or indirectly? The question is, *do they increase* the wealth of the nation? and Mr. Spence admits that they do. Be it conceded for a moment to him that commerce and manufactures produce wealth only indirectly, will not the loss of them be equally injurious? The sun and the dews of heaven do not directly produce corn, of which the earth is the immediate source: but let the solar influence and genial moisture be withdrawn, and the source becomes barren. In what does this simile fail? The application of it is obvious. When Mr. Spence has, as he thinks, shewn that manufactures do not directly produce wealth, and that commerce does not directly

enrich, he flatters himself that he has made out his conclusions; and, to use his own words, 'that to a nation such as we are, our commerce is a matter of perfect indifference, and that it is of small importance to us, whether our imports and our exports increase or diminish.' We assert, on the contrary, that even if he had shewn that manufactures and commerce did not *directly* produce wealth, he would have been as remote from these propositions as ever; and that, in order to establish them, it was incumbent on him also to manifest that manufactures and commerce did not *indirectly* produce wealth, which is contrary to his own express repeated admissions. Representing, as Mr.S. does in various passages of his work, that manufactures improve and advance agriculture, and render nations prosperous and rich, he contradicts himself when he afterward asserts that the one and the other 'are matters of small importance,' and even of perfect indifference to us as a nation; 'that manufactures are no source at all of national wealth,' and 'that commerce does not contribute a sixpence to it.'

What must we think, however, of the information and the intellect of that man, who at this time of day can maintain that manufactures do not produce wealth, and that commerce does not enrich a nation; a proposition in which difference of soil is overlooked, and mere animal labour alone is considered; in which the aid that human labour derives from the intervention of machinery, the influence of the elements, and the effects of time, are not taken into calculation; and according to which the wretch who labours the poorest soil under the most inhospitable sky, and whose toil does not gain him a shilling per day, is a productive labourer, while it places an Arkwright and a Bolton, whose machinery saves the labour of hundreds, in the unproductive class? Is not this to introduce distinctions which insult reason, as much as they revolt the feelings? We are misled by words. Why may not the earth be considered as machinery, the agriculturist as a manufacturer, and the produce as manufactures? In manufactures, the natural elements are frequently made essentially to co operate; in various processes, the light, the air, and water, are brought to lend their aid. This was never taken into consideration by the economists, and is not noticed by Mr. Spence. Living in France, *they* saw little of the marvellous effects of manufactures, and territorial wealth was there every thing: but Mr. Spence moves in a scene altogether different, and which forces on the mind very opposite conclusions.

'It is almost universally believed, (says the writer,) that commerce is the greatest possible source of national wealth. In this country, particularly,

particularly, where commerce has been carried to a greater extent than in any other country of the same size, it is the opinion of almost all its inhabitants, that its wealth, its greatness, and its prosperity, have been chiefly derived from its commerce; and, that these advantages can be continued, and increased, only by its continuance and extension.'

The province of commerce is too obvious to be misunderstood; it circulates and distributes wealth, and, by thus inciting to its production, is indirectly the cause of producing it in an incalculable degree. While the general proposition is true that commerce does not produce wealth, it is equally true that it incredibly enriches those nations which engage in it. Where its operations centre, there it accumulates and fixes wealth; and it may be said not untruly to be a source of wealth, and a very fertile one too, as we could demonstrate on the foundation of admissions repeatedly made in the present tract.

Mr. S. is pleased to observe that, 'for whatever a nation purchases in a foreign market, it gives an adequate value, either in money or in other goods; so far then, certainly, it gains no profit nor addition to its wealth. It has changed one sort of wealth for another, but it has not increased the amount it was before possessed of.'—We have here a specimen of the manner in which this writer contrives to puzzle himself, and attempts to confound the ignorant part of his readers. The simple operation of bartering certainly occasions no addition of wealth, but it is indirectly the cause of a two-fold production: namely, of the articles given, and of those that are received in exchange. Discontinue this operation, and both productions will cease.

In the same spirit, the author observes that 'the sticklers for the importance of commerce' (an odd phrase for an Englishman to use) 'fallaciously fancy that the loss of an extensive branch of our export commerce is a diminution of national wealth.' If we are founded in what we have just observed, that, though commerce does not directly increase the wealth of the world, it does directly enrich the spots on which it is cultivated,—as the circumstances of Tyre and Carthage in antient times, and those of Venice, Genoa, the Hans towns, and Holland, in modern days, incontestibly prove,—this is *no* 'fallacious fancy.'

Again, the author adds; 'a great nation possessed of landed property can never gain more than a trifling addition to its wealth from commerce.' Anticipating the objection that may be founded on the cases of Tyre and Venice, and so many other states, he says, 'but they were without territory and they had a carrying trade.' How singular is it that territory,

which yields revenue itself, should take away that quality from commerce, or in any degree impair it! If, of two merchants having equal commerce, one has a large estate and the other has none, *cæteris paribus*, does the estate occasion the former to derive *no* profit, or *less* profit, from his traffic?

Another curious observation of this writer is that 'it is Europe, Asia, and America, and not Britain, that is enriched by her (Britain's) commerce.' That the advantages to the importer and exporter are reciprocal, contrary to what is here advanced, is a consolatory truth, among the first elements of this science; and the statement and principle of it require only to be once read in Dr. Smith, to be comprehended by the dullest mind. This egregious error sufficiently indicates the noviciate of Mr. Spence in the branch of knowlege in which he affects to be an adept.

If it were necessary to adduce a farther specimen of the want of acquaintance with his subject which Mr. S. betrays, we should refer to his miserable attempt to cavil at, and even to ridicule, the observations of Dr. Smith on the effects which flow from the conduct of the miser and the spendthrift as they respect society in general. Among the fine disquisitions in that very superior, though not the most finished, performance, not one is more happy and satisfactory than this, which the present author has chosen to make the subject of humour and pleasantry. He says 'that it is on the expenditure and not parsimony of the class of land proprietors, that the production of national wealth depends.' We deny this *in toto*, in a country in which capital has not reached its maximum, and in which public works and beneficial enterprizes remain in which the savings of individuals may be embarked. On the system of parsimony, *more* wealth may be produced, but less cannot; the expenditure or the parsimony, however, needs necessarily affect only the description of wealth; and they more relate to public order than to the quantum of production, which may be equal, or nearly so, on both systems of conduct in the class in question.

Not only do the absurd positions of the author bespeak his want of knowlege, but the bugbears, which he conjures up in order to combat and to foil them, substantiate against him the same charge. As an instance, we may remark the pains which he takes to shew that circulating paper is no part of national wealth. Who ever maintained so extravagant a notion as the affirmative of this proposition? Within certain limits, paper facilitates the operations of commerce, and, by thus increasing its activity, is indirectly the cause of producing wealth. — Moreover, he tells us, some persons

overlook

overlook the immense wealth which we derive from our soil, and even deny its existence:—we are total strangers to any such persons: but we suppose that they must be confined to the description of people mentioned by the author, who are usually more noisy than intelligent, we mean alehouse politicians. He who derives his information from the best source on these matters, namely the volumes of Dr. Smith, needs not to be taught by Mr. Spence that manufactures, in a state which is mistress of a large territory, are of inferior consideration to agriculture, and that *internal* enriches far more than *external* commerce; in that great writer, these matters are correctly stated, clearly proved, amply illustrated, and not confusedly thrown out and gratuitously asserted, as they are in these pages. No man, not excepting the economists, ever demonstrated more fully the superior value of the soil, or insisted more on the higher claims of agriculture, than Dr. Smith.—The anticipations of the author respecting the decline of our manufactures and commerce, in the event of a peace, are farther indications of the little proficiency which he has made in this science.

We pass over the extraordinary assertion that commerce is not necessary to the support and maintenance of our navy, and the mode of arguing by which that proposition is supported. Forgetting, or wilfully overlooking, Dr. Smith's account of the manner in which a nation is enriched by imports and exports, the author asserts that we shall gain by the extinction of our foreign commerce, because we export useful and durable articles, and import those which are perishing and pernicious.

Having taken a survey of Mr. Spence's attainments in political economy, let us view him as an adviser of measures which respect internal administration, and our foreign relations. We shall present our readers with a short specimen of the method by which this statesman removes difficulties, and renders every thing smooth:

'When, in consequence of the caprice of one nation, or the envy of another, the export of our manufactures is materially lessened, we have but to lessen our imports proportionably, and to spend the money which we usually had consumed in the produce of other countries, in purchasing an additional quantity of the manufactures of our own. Thus, if the Americans persist in acting upon the non-importation law, which their pettish folly led them so hastily to pass, and in consequence, throw upon our hands the two or three millions' worth of woollen cloths, &c. which they have been accustomed to buy of us, we have but to prohibit the importation of tobacco, and the other articles which we get of them, and we shall speedily see them upon their knees, requesting us to let things go on in their

old train. And the consumers in this country, who will then save the money they had before wasted in tobacco, have but to expend the sums so saved, in a new coat or two additional for each of them, and our manufactures will not be sensible of the change, nor have occasion to regret the substitution of a British, for an American, market.'

Imports are things which promote the comfort, gratify the taste, or feed the vanity of the home-consumer; and on one or another of these accounts he buys them, and labours to acquire the productions which supply the necessary funds. Will he guide his choice in the selection of what he buys by the nod of a statesman; or will he toil if these things are withdrawn, merely in order to prevent a deficit in the revenue? Where has this author studied human nature, and the course of human transactions? To him it is perfectly easy to convert the class of epicures into fops, and that of ragged tipplers into sober and decent labourers, or *vice versâ*, according to the wishes of governors;—and this instantaneously, to answer the state purposes of the moment. The Privy Council, we suppose, have only to issue a proclamation to recommend, or parliament to enact a law to enforce, that the subject at home shall take all the woollens and hardware which we were wont to export, and it is immediately accomplished. If subjects were made of such stuff, then would government offices be indeed "beds of roses," and Mr. Spence would not be without plausibility.—As to the Americans, we fear that they are not at present in quite so kneeling a humor as the author supposes.

Supposing that we are made converts to the new system of political economy,—that we undervalue Smith, and become followers of Spence,—we do not see where we are to find the consolation which this author promises us. He cannot deny the fact that our exports amount to fifty millions; he admits a fifth of this sum is profit, and that the revenue benefits by it to the amount of four millions; he is also aware that a number of hands would be thrown out of employ, and that the state is bound to provide for them, the expence of which we suppose could hardly amount to less than a million.—Here is, then, an additional sum of five millions to be raised annually; and how is this to be done? Let us take courage; the author is never at a loss; and difficulties, which would appal ordinary individuals, never even startle him. These five millions must be laid, he tells us, on the land. We have only to give up tea and wine, and spirits and sugar, all of which (except the last) are prejudicial to our health, and we shall still be gainers.—Perhaps we have been unable to satisfy our readers

that

that this is an impracticable scheme: but in this case we are sure that none of them will dissent from us when we assert that it is any thing but consolatory. In the sacrifice itself, surely nothing of that kind can be found; and as to the additional impost which it is proposed to throw on the land, we leave it to the consideration of those who know better than we do in what degree the land is already burthened; let *them* say whether consolation can be derived from *this* part of the author's plan.

If we are obliged to continue the contest, and the loss of our commerce ensues, we are as far as Mr. Spence from thinking that this event will occasion our national downfall; and what other effects may result, it is not material here to inquire. That, though our "commerce perish," we are still capable of existing as a nation, and even as a powerful nation, may be deemed no matter of doubt: but if we be deprived of commerce we shall not be what we have been. We shall resemble an individual who has lost a precious limb, say his right arm. Or we shall be in the situation of a man who is deprived of a most valuable portion of his estate, of that on which his splendour, his hospitality, and his charities depended: he might indeed still reside in the family mansion, but the most spacious apartments must be shut up; his festivities and joyous galas would be rare; a great part of his retinue must be dismissed, his equipage contracted, his park ploughed, and his style of living totally changed.

We are very certain that the parties immediately interested will deem Mr. Spence's consolations an insult, and that men of intelligence will regard them as an affront to their understanding, while the event will abundantly expose their futility. We have never met with any tract that engaged even temporary attention from the public, which so little deserved it. The author does not conceal his errors under a mass of learning, nor dim the senses by the blaze of his eloquence, but they appear to the experienced eye in all their naked deformity: nor is he master of those arts by which the fancy is amused, and reason lulled asleep; he does not practice his impostures by the aids of ingenious sophistry and logical dexterity, but the impression which he has made is resolvable to the influence which confident declarations and bold assertions will ever have on the ignorant and the indolent. If he be not, as we have considered him, a mere sciolist, whose presumption is equal to his insufficiency, on what principle does he expect that his wild chimeras will be favourably received?—Does he suppose that the delirium of the last summer has not yet subsided; and that one delusion has given the

people

people a relish for others, and has indisposed them to truth and matter of fact? Those who lately trembled for the safety of our national church, who lost sight of Bonaparte in their fears of the Pope, who were appalled by the dangers of extended toleration, who exulted in the triumphs of bigotry, and who were persuaded to regard strength and permanence as resulting from a dis-union which a stigmatizing exclusion feeds and inflames,—such persons may resort to Mr. Spence for comfort, and adopt as an article of their political faith, that 'Britain is independent of commerce.'

For aught that we know, Mr. Spence may by his present labours attract the notice, and engage the countenance, of *some* great men in this kingdom: but of this we are certain, that we can point to one great man out of it, who will feel infinitely beholden to him if he succeeds in persuading his countrymen no longer to be 'sticklers for the importance of commerce,'—in making them believe that 'it does not contribute sixpence to the national wealth,'—and in inducing them to deem it of small importance 'whether their imports and exports increase or diminish.' We have too high an opinion of that personage's discernment of all that can assist his views, not to be fully persuaded that he would deem even a *cordon* of the legion of honor well bestowed on the man who would procure the leading doctrines of this pamphlet to be universally received, and to become operative, in Great Britain.

Since the preceding article was written, we have seen a 3d. edition of Mr. Spence's pamphlet, to which the following advertisement is prefixed:

'Owing to the haste with which this work was originally written, under the idea that the state of things which seemed to call for it would probably be of no long duration, a few slight inaccuracies escaped observation; and the chain of reasoning, in some places, is not so strong as it might be. These defects I have endeavoured to remedy in the present edition. Some additional notes, also, are added, applicable to existing circumstances; and in particular, the abundant resources, which offer themselves for the employment of those manufacturers who may be deprived of occupation by the loss of our export trade, are pointed out more distinctly than before.'

It has happened to be out of our power to compare the edition which we used with this new impression; and under these circumstances we can only convey to our readers the preceding notification, which justice to Mr. Spence seems to require us to communicate.

Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1808.

MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, &c.

Art. 12. *A System of Chemistry.* By Thomas Thomson, M.D. F.R.S. Ed. 3d Edition. 5 vols. 8vo. 3l. Boards. Edinburgh, Bell and Bradfute; London, Murray. 1807.

It is not our general custom to notice new editions, but in the present instance we are induced to deviate from our plan, on account of the importance of the work, and of the great quantity of valuable matter which has been added to it. The author informs us, in his preface, that 'more than one half of the whole has been written anew, and important additions and alterations have been introduced into almost every chapter. Several chemical departments, omitted altogether in the former editions for want of a sufficient number of facts, have for the first time found a place in this. So numerous, indeed, are these additions, that the work has swelled out to an additional volume.' We cannot advert to all the new matter, nor to all the changes that have taken place in the arrangement of the old materials; and we shall only have it in our power to announce a few of the most important of them.

The section on carbon has undergone a considerable alteration; the late experiments, of both the French and English chemists, have given us new views on this subject, and have tended to throw a degree of doubt on the opinion, which was before thought to be firmly established, of the difference between carbon and charcoal. We have likewise, in the same section, considerable new matter on the subject of the combinations of charcoal and hydrogen, under the form of the different carbureted hydrogenous gases; and the inflammable gas from pit coal, which has lately attracted so much attention, the olefient gas, and the carbonic oxid, are all described with that clearness and perspicuity, which we have before had occasion so much to commend in Dr. Thomson's writings. In the chapter which treats on the metallic bodies, we have an account of the new metals that have been extracted from crude platina, an abstract of Mr. Hatchett's experiments on coins, and a considerable alteration in the account of the carburets of iron.

On the subject of caloric, the chapter has undergone a great change; some parts of the old edition are omitted, and Dr. T. has introduced an excellent account of Mr. Leslie's curious experiments on the escape of heat from surfaces. We have likewise some additional experiments on the increased bulk of water, as it approaches the freezing point; and we are happy to observe that the author has had the discretion to discard his speculation respecting the connection between the specific heat of bodies and their conducting power.—The second division of the work, which contains a statement of the earths, the oxids, the acids, and the salts, has received many additions; so that scarcely a section is free from change, and some are entirely new. The alterations in the third book, on affinity

affinity, are still more important; the account of homogeneous affinity, which appeared in the former edition, is omitted, and we have in its place a long chapter on gases. It is divided into five sections; on the constitution of gases, their mixture, and the combination of gases with gases, liquids, and solids. We have also another new chapter on liquids, relating first to their constitution, secondly to their action on each other, and thirdly to their combination with solids; and we find a fourth chapter on solids, in which are considered the subjects of cohesion, crystallization, and the combination of solids with each other. A fifth chapter also appears to be almost entirely new, containing four sections, on combination, decomposition, precipitation, and volatilization.

The account of the atmosphere, of meteorology, and of mineral waters is not much altered: but the mineralogical part is throughout new-modelled, and greatly improved, in consequence of the author having adopted the Wernerean arrangement. The animal and vegetable substances occupy the fifth volume, which is even more bulky than any of the preceding four, and which, like them, contains a great variety of entirely new matter. The book on affinity, in which the general doctrines of chemistry are particularly discussed, is almost wholly new; and the same is the case with the mineralogical part. In the remainder of the work, as far as we have been able to judge, the author has spared no pains in collecting new information from every quarter, and seems, in all instances, to have kept pace with the recent improvements.—As a valuable body of facts, stated with singular clearness, the performance stands unrivalled: but, as a system of chemical knowlege, all the objections that we formerly urged against it still remain in their full force. **Bos.**

Art. 13. *A Copy of the Answer to the Queries of the London College of Surgeons*, and of a Letter to the College of Physicians, respecting the Experiment of the Cow Pox. By John Birch, Surgeon extraordinary to the Prince of Wales, &c. 8vo. 3s. Harris. 1807.

The College of Surgeons, some time ago, addressed to their members, in different parts of the kingdom, a set of queries on the subject of vaccination; and Mr. Birch, who has formerly appeared before us as one of the most determined opposers of the practice,* has deemed it necessary to publish the answers which he drew up on this occasion. He observes in his preface that, 'In the answers to the queries issued by the London College of Surgeons, they have been informed of 56 cases of failure, of 66 of consequent eruption, of 24 of bad arms, and of 3 of death.' He farther states that, out of more than 1100 persons to whom queries were sent, only 426 have returned answers; and he infers that, if the whole had complied with the request of the College, the number of unfavorable replies must necessarily have been much greater.—We are, however, disposed to draw a different inference; we conceive it highly probable, and it corresponds with our observation, that those practitioners are the most disposed to make the result of their practice known, who have met with any occurrences that

* See Rev. vol. lii. N. S. p. 104.

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can be esteemed uncommon or singular. We can assure our readers that the above statement of the 56 failures, the 66 eruptions, &c. makes not the smallest impression on us; we have already some hundreds of failures, eruptions, &c. &c. in the writings of Dr. Rowley; and yet we are so obstinate as still to believe in the efficacy of the cow-pox. Our faith is not more affected by the declaration of Mr. Birch that many cases of failure have fallen under his own knowlege, and that he has heard of others in different parts of the country; such general assertions always stand for cyphers in medical arithmetic.

Mr. B. thinks that the practice of vaccination is declining in London, and he ascribes such decline to the following causes. 1st. the two vaccine societies disagree in their opinion on some essential points; one society, for instance, supposes that there are two sorts of cow-pox, a genuine and a spurious kind; the other, that there is only one sort. It always has been and always will be the case, that medical men will differ on such topics: but this particular circumstance is entirely a dispute about words, and does not, in the slightest degree, affect any point of practice.—The 2d. cause is the supposed origin of the disease;—and the third, the uncertainty of the method of ensuring success in the progress of inoculation. As to the 2d cause, it is more a matter of fancy than of argument: if persons think that there is any thing gratifying in the virus of the small-pox, or in the appearance of a patient labouring under that disease, we must leave them to indulge their own tastes. The circumstance ought, no doubt, to stimulate us to use our best endeavours to arrive at certainty on the controverted points, but we do not see how it can afford any argument against the practice in general.

Mr. Birch afterward informs his readers that he is compelled to declare that he sees new and anomalous eruptions following the disease. Let him accurately describe these eruptions, and shew how they differ from those that have been previously known, and the public will give him credit for wishing to throw light on an important and interesting object of discussion. While, on the contrary, he satisfies himself with these general charges, he can be regarded, on the most favorable construction, in no other light than that of a man who has taken a part in a controversy, the merits of which he does not fully comprehend, or at least does not adequately embrace.

Bos.

Art. 14. *Reports of the State of Vaccination*, at the Sheffield General Infirmary. By Robert Earnest, House Surgeon. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Co. 1807.

Although this pamphlet does not add materially to our knowlege on the subject of vaccination, yet, as affording the result of an extensive practice, and as the production of a man who appears to possess a candid and inquiring turn of mind, it is not unworthy of our attention. Mr. Earnest, in his public capacity of house surgeon to the Sheffield Infirmary, has had an opportunity of inoculating 'nearly 5000 persons, of whom not a single individual has been lost.'

He

He gives an interesting account of a child, apparently healthy, who was inoculated with what seemed to be perfect matter, and yet, instead of the proper disease being produced, it had a violent erythematous inflammation brought on the arm, succeeded by an ichorous discharge from the punctured part. The symptoms were, after some time, subdued, and the child afterward received the cow-pox without any disagreeable consequences.—A case is also mentioned in which the cow pox and measles existed at the same time; 'the two diseases,' the author says, 'ran on together, and the child did well.'

We have afterward a full account of four cases of small-pox, which were supposed to be subsequent to vaccination, and which are said to have excited in Sheffield a considerable prejudice against the cow-pox. In the first two cases, the operations were performed at the commencement of the author's practice; and as he made no minutes respecting them, he is unable to state exactly what was the result of the inoculation. The subsequent disease appears to have been small-pox, both from its symptoms and from the way in which it was produced: but its duration was shorter than the usual period, and it seemed to have been modified by the preceding disease, whatever may have been its real nature. The 3d and 4th cases afford every reason for supposing that the small-pox infection was received into the constitution, before the vaccination had taken its due effect.—Mr. Earnest concludes with this declaration: 'Upon the whole, after frequently *retrospecting* the above remarks and observations on the disease in question, I cannot, for a single moment, hesitate to say that I feel a firm conviction that perfect vaccination is a permanent preventive of the small-pox; that the discovery of it has been one of the most valuable that has ever been made in the healing art; and that it will ultimately prove one of the greatest blessings to mankind in general, and immortalize the name of Jenner.'

Bos.

MILITARY AFFAIRS.

Art. 15. *Letters upon the Establishment of the Volunteer Corps and domestic military Arrangement of Great Britain.* By James Ferguson, Esq. Advocate, Major 1st. Battallion 2d. Regiment. A.V.I. 8vo. pp. 118. 3s. Bell and Bradfute, Edinburgh; Murray, London.

Mr. Ferguson's views in publishing these letters appear to have been patriotic, many of his remarks are well founded, and several of his suggestions are judicious: but, like other pamphleteers who have written on the subject, and like all speakers in the debates that have hitherto taken place respecting it in the House of Commons, he does not go beyond the alphabet of military organization and national defence. He does not once speak of the many and natural advantages which this country, differently circumstanced in various respects from all the other countries of Europe, affords for the purposes of defence; and of which, under officers even moderately skilful and intelligent, we might successfully avail ourselves against an invading enemy with almost any description of troops. We are also inclined to think that he even takes a microscopic prospect of

our danger, for in this inclosed country disposition is of much more consequence than numbers; and he seems to have overlooked the very wide difference between the landing of a small army in this island for the purposes of annoyance, partial destruction, or temporary alarm, and that of a large and numerous force, designed to effect actual subjugation.

Were the volunteers in each county to be kept together ten days or a fortnight, twice in the year, and (as Mr. F. suggests) with the militia of the same county to be embodied with a certain proportion of the regulars both infantry and cavalry, and during that time to be taught to go through their manœuvres and evolutions with them, to march, encamp, and occupy positions, they would soon be much better prepared for co-operating effectually with the regular army in the hour of danger and attack, than they ever can be by the present system. This method of preparing them for the purposes of national defence would also render them emulous of equalling the militia, and even the regulars, and would operate as a permanent stimulus, which is certainly much to be desired. They ought not, however, to be taught any movements but such as it may be necessary for them to practise in the face of an enemy; for, when a system of evolutions is rendered unnecessarily multiform and complex, it must lead to confusion and disorder in the time of action.

Glen.

NATURAL HISTORY.

Art. 16. *The Botanist's Guide through the Counties of Northumberland and Durham.* To which is added a Catalogue of English Names. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 150. 3s. Longman and Co. 1807.

In the 50th volume of our New Series, (p. 431.) we noticed the first part of this provincial Flora. Messrs. Wynch and Thornhill, the surviving editors, have, in the prosecution of their task, been favoured with a list of phænogamous plants, indigenous to the county of Durham, by the Rev. J. Symmons:—Mr. F. Scott has also communicated to them the result of his botanical researches in the neighbourhood of Hexham:—Mr. R. Wilson, of Medomsley, has enabled them to ascertain many of the Fungi, by means of accurate drawings:—and the Rev. J. Harriman has supplied them with some important and critical observations on the numerous tribe of Lichens.—The latter are arranged agreeably to the method of Acharius, and the Fuci according to Turner's Synopsis: but the remaining genera are classed conformably to the third edition of Withering's British Flora.

Lecidea Testacea is inserted, but with the following qualification: 'The Description of Acharius, and Opinion of the Rev. Mr. Borrer, *has* [have] induced us to insert this rare Plant in our Catalogue: though we must acknowledge that Mr. Turner, whose authority, in this Class, is very great, will not allow it to be Lichen Saxifraga of Dr. Smith, in the Linnæan Transactions, which is a Synonym of Acharius.'

The number of species now particularized amounts to 1885, and the list is, on the whole, highly creditable to the diligence of the compilers. Should a second edition, however, be required, we recommend

mend a more careful revisal of the press.—Prefixed to the present volume is a tolerably copious supplement to the first, including, among other rare plants, *Elymus Europæus*, *Galium Trivorne*, *Sison Amomum*, *Rubus Coryliſolius*, *Thymus Calamintha*, *Ophrys Apifera*, &c. Muir.

HISTORY *and* ANTIQUITIES.

Art. 17. *The Antiquarian and Topographical Cabinet*, containing a Series of elegant Views of the most interesting Objects of Curiosity in Great Britain. Accompanied with Letter Press Descriptions. Vol. I. 12mo. 15s. Boards, large paper 1l. 4s. Clarke. 1807.

Of this elegant little work, the 1st. volume of which 'contains fifty very highly finished views of some of the most interesting scenery in the kingdom,' the professed object is to 'preserve the most venerable remains of antiquity which time is incessantly whittleing away by nearly imperceptible atoms:' but it is not confined to this point, since 'subjects of a miscellaneous nature are occasionally introduced,' which render it still more pleasing.

Respecting the selection of the subjects contained in this volume, and the style of the Drawing and Engravings, we find ourselves disposed to speak in terms of high commendation; and although the scale on which they are given is small, the execution is unusually neat. The descriptions are concise, comprehensive, and appropriate: but in this department of the work we would recommend that dates of Buildings, or even of parts of them, when they can be obtained or even conjectured, and also their dimensions, should be invariably affixed. In the latter part of the volume, the views relating to the city of Worcester are given in a regular series; a method which in most cases would be very desirable: but the authors seemed aware of the impossibility of uniformly attending to it; and therefore have not numbered the pages, so that subscribers may arrange the subjects according to their own taste, without disfiguring the work. W.Rev.

Art. 18. *The Beauties of England and Wales*; or Delineations topographical, historical, and descriptive of each County, embellished with Engravings. By John Britton, and Edward Wedlake Brayley. 8vo. Vol IV. pp. 560. 18s. Vol. V. pp. 736 1l. 5s. Vol. VI. pp. 599. 1l. 2s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood, &c.

On the former volumes of this publication, we bestowed considerable commendation; (see M.R. Vol. 40. N.S. 390. and Vol. 42. p. 110.) and in examining the merits of those before us, we find them in several respects improving in our good opinion. The exertions of the authors seem to have been unremitted; and the result has been the continuation of a performance which reflects credit on their abilities, and may be of essential utility to the public.

The work contains a comprehensive history of each county, details of its Size, Population, Aspect, Soils, State of Agriculture, Produce, Mines, Minerals, and Rivers, an historical and descriptive view of its Towns, Cathedrals, Churches, and other Public Buildings: Trade, Commerce, Manufactures, Villages, Seats, Castles, Antiquities, Ruins, Manors, Bridges, charitable Establishments, Biographical

cal notices of eminent natives, &c. and also an account of the several Works, Maps, Plans, &c. that have been published relative to the places described. The whole is embellished with a series of engravings, generally (but with a few exceptions) of much merit; making altogether what may be justly called a Libraty of British Topography.

When this compilation was first projected, it seems to have been intended only to give engravings of the most *beautiful* and interesting scenery, with historical accounts descriptive of the places represented, and therefore was intitled *The Beauties* of England and Wales: but, through the increasing exertions of the authors, and the patronage of the Public, it has ascended in the scale of literature, and at present deserves a more general title. In order to obtain the requisite information on the various topics which the work embraces, the editors have had recourse to all the former writers who have treated on them; have consulted old manuscripts, and opened a correspondence with resident individuals; and also have added to these sources personal research, one of them having actually visited the places described, and thus enabled himself to correct any errors in the accounts otherwise procured.

Volume IV. contains the History and Description of Devonshire, Dorsetshire, and the Isle of Portland, with twenty Engravings: volume V. the counties of Durham, Essex, and Glocester, with 36 Engravings: volume VI. Hampshire, the Isle of Wight, and Herefordshire, with 32 Engravings. The several subjects are well digested, the arrangement is natural, and the language is appropriate. The popularity which, we understand, the work has acquired, is the best criterion of the sense which the public entertain of its merits; we coincide with them in their decision, and congratulate them on the opportunity of gaining so much information with so little trouble. W. Re-s.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 19. *A Letter on the Nature, Extent, and Management, of Poor Rates in Scotland:* with a Review of the Controversy respecting the Abolition of Poor Laws. 8vo. pp. 38. 1s. 6d. Harding, 1807.

We opened this tract with the expectation of deriving from it information on a subject which, in itself considered, is of the highest interest, but which late discussions have served still farther to enhance. What was our disappointment, on finding page after page offer nothing to the eye but loose desultory observations on abstract questions, about which the author appears to be very ill qualified to treat!

A puerile declamation against the doctrine of expediency introduces the writer's attacks on Mr. Malthus: but the flippancy which these display are only equalled by the shallowness and ignorance on which they are bottomed. In the conceptions of the author, the notion that the poor-rates are inexpedient and impolitic is pregnant with mischief. He is in great apprehension lest it should gain ground; and that this may be the case, he says, 'is to be feared from the general circulation of

the Essay on Population by Mr. Malthus, which has received an additional degree of notoriety from its principles having been adopted and applauded by Mr. Whitbread, in his speech upon the Poor Laws lately delivered in the House of Commons *.'

Mr. Malthus's work had been perused by every man of superior intelligence, long before the mention of it made by Mr. Whitbread; and it is not a little curious that the honourable member did not refer to it as adopting and applauding it, but in order to refute it. The testimony, it is true, which he bore to its general merits, was such as might have been expected from an opponent equally candid and intelligent with himself: but all the leading features of his plans are at variance with the principles of Mr. Malthus; and they also clash with several of the received doctrines of political economy, as laid down by other writers, which it was not within the scope of Mr. Malthus's work particularly to consider. On these grounds, though yielding to none in our respect for the abilities, integrity, and patriotism of Mr. W., we have already professed our dissent from his plans, and ventured earnestly to deprecate their adoption.

In the thirty-eight pages of which this tract consists, three or four, that are pertinent to the subject, will gratify readers who prefer facts to the effusions of superficial dogmatism; and sorry are we to say that the pamphlet itself supplies the means of making the contrast. The author promises a continuance of his labours on the present subject: if he will abandon theory, and impart to us the facts which his title-page promises, we shall gladly attend to him, and chearfully pay him the tribute to which he may intitle himself. **Jo.**

Art. 20. *Peace without Dishonour, War without Hope.* An Argument against War with Great Britain, recently published at Boston. By an American Farmer. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Butterworth.

Had we been left to judge concerning the author of this pamphlet from its internal complexion, we should have conjectured that he was a lawyer rather than a farmer, and a subject of Great Britain rather than an American citizen. It contains a strenuous defence of our conduct in the affair of the Chesapeake Frigate, and is as completely Anti-American and Anti-Gallican as if it had been composed by a servant of our own Government. We should be happy to hear that the sentiments here advanced were popular in the United States: but we cannot help suspecting that this American farmer employs arguments which are more current on the eastern than on the western side of the Atlantic.

Though peace is, beyond all controversy, the interest of both countries, and though war presents little hope to either, we have much to apprehend from the operation of national pride and irritated feelings; which rarely listen to calm reason, or take the road of sound discretion. In a maritime contest, America can flatter herself with no prospect of success against Great Britain, but must materially suffer by having her intercourse with this country

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' * On Thursday, 19th February, 1807.'

suspended,

suspended, and her commerce with the East destroyed. On the other hand, she may console herself with the inconveniences which *our* commerce and colonies must sustain, and may threaten us with the invasion of Canada and Nova Scotia. The boasted revenue of America is inadequate to the expence of creating a navy; and if she enters on a war, she must, as this writer intimates, have recourse to the European expedients of *loans and taxes*, which will not be much relished by the inhabitants of the United States. According to this *soi disant* Amerian Farmer, the odious system of Excise would produce only 750,000 dollars; and in case of a war, the Americans must calculate on 20,000,000 dollars being annually raised by direct taxes on *land and slaves*. He calls the threatened contest *a war for British deserters*; and he intimates that, at its conclusion, supposing it to last five years, a more heavy debt would be contracted than was felt at the end of the *revolutionary war*. He presumes to reason on the ground that a war with America is not unpopular in England, and that our manufacturers are not apprehensive from the event: but we conjecture that such an argument would not be used on the other side of the water; and we suspect something counterfeit in the whole of this publication. Mo-y.

Art. 21. *The State of Great Britain abroad and at home*, in the eventful Year 1808; by an Englishman of no Party. 8vo. pp. 42. 2s. Tipper.

Nothing is more easily penned than loose general declamation, but nothing is more vapid and unprofitable. Within the limits of a few pages, the present author glances at a variety of interesting subjects, without satisfactorily discussing any; so that it would be difficult to collect from him 'the state of Great Britain' either abroad or at home. On the seizure of the Danish Fleet, he merely observes that *necessitas non habet leges*; and in adverting to our domestic situation, he seriously deplores, as an Englishman of *any* party may do, the prevalence of prostitution and other immoralities. Do

Art. 22. *The Crisis*. By the Author of *Plain Facts; or a Review of the Conduct of the late Ministers*. Third Edition. 8vo. pp. 115. 3s. J.J. Stockdale. 1807.

This author assures the good people of England that they have had a very narrow escape from utter ruin, and that the dismissal of the late administration has alone prevented it:—nothing was right, he says, which they did:—but he congratulates us on the change, and invites us to place unlimited confidence in the men who now preside at the helm, who will retrieve our fallen fortunes, and indeed have already done so.—Not only do the leaders of the present opposition fare hardly before this writer's tribunal, but the principal powers of the continent are equally arraigned, and are not treated with more ceremony. The councils of this country are stated to have been infallible, except during the short period of the rule of the ex-ministers; and the ill consequences which have happened have been owing to the faults of our late allies, but to England no error or miscalculation is imputable. He particularly inveighs against the jealousies and antipathies which divide the Austrians and Prussians:

but however well deserved may be this censure, it is passed with a very ill grace by the devoted admirer of men, who came into power on the ground of maintaining and perpetuating disunion between their fellow subjects. Is it for those who so recently set one portion of the king's subjects to revile and stigmatize an immense mass of their fellow subjects, to inveigh against independent states for not making a common cause where a common interest exists? Most of these pages seem exercises in declamation:—while the late ministers are in the view of the writer, all the terms which express contempt are employed; and to these he adds even execration when Bonaparte presents himself to his mind: but the language of panegyric is exhausted on the members of the present cabinet. When he reprobates certain deeds of Bonaparte, his inflated verbiage labours in vain to go beyond the real guilt: but what will the reader think of the man who flatly denies that any thing great or eminent belongs to that extraordinary personage? This, it appears, is more a libel on the ruling powers of the world than on the French chief. Twelve years have scarcely expired since Bonaparte was as little known to Europe as his present detractor: but since that time he has risen to be the first potentate in the universe. If it really served the state, or reflected honour on the nation, to heap vulgar and indiscriminate abuse on this powerful chief, still the author might have spared himself the trouble, since he cannot in this respect surpass a certain description of the daily prints. One charge, however, is here advanced against the French ruler which we have not hitherto seen preferred:—he is accused of 'mutilating the beauty and shaking even the constitution of nature.'

The writer is a warm admirer of what he calls 'the well concerted expedition against the Danes, which had so *brilliant* a termination,' and which he describes 'as no less admirable in its execution than in its conception.' 'The whole conduct and execution of this important affair (he adds) have been truly illustrative of the *virtues* of the British character.' We in some sort agree with him, when he says that 'it has evinced a determination to depart from those *creeping maxims*, and to burst asunder *those oppressive chains*, by which our best energies have for so long a time been shackled.' He seems to have anticipated the morality which a young professor is said very recently to have inculcated in an august assembly: but our prejudices are too inveterate to profit by the principles of this extraordinary lecture. Conceiving 'those creeping maxims' to mean the rules of justice, and 'those oppressive chains' to be no others than the laws of morality, in spite of the author's anathemas, we cannot avoid regarding this 'brilliant' atchievement with feelings of shame and humiliation. Jo.

Art. 23. *A Letter to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. M.P.* on the Subject of two Bills now (lately) pending in Parliament. By Robert Deverell, Esq. Late one of the Representatives for the Borough of Saltash. 8vo. pp. 30. 1s. 6d. Clarke. 1807.

Though the avowal of having defended the slave trade, and the doubts thrown out by this writer as to the expediency of teaching

the poor to read and write, cannot be supposed much to recommend him to us, yet we own that his modest and dispassionate manner of expressing his sentiments has occasioned the perusal of his pamphlet to be in no way disagreeable. As to the slave trade, peace be to its manes! We hope that the new morality lately introduced is not inculcated with any view of paving the way for reviving that horrible traffic.—If we do not approve of any compulsory method for instructing the children of the poor in reading and writing, and if we strenuously protest against the expediency and justice of imposing any burthens on the community for this purpose, we highly applaud the object; and we conceive that the benevolent and public spirited cannot be better employed than in encouraging and promoting it. A noble Admiral is here quoted as saying that formerly, when sailors were more illiterate, he had greater confidence in them, and they were more pious: but this noble person could not add that they were more brave, for never did they stand higher in this respect than at the very time when the gallant commander complains of their acquirements. The church of Rome has been charged with maintaining that ignorance is the parent of devotion, and the noble Admiral in question seems to agree with it in that sentiment.

Some years ago, it seems, a plan similar to that which was lately proposed by Mr. Whitbread, in regard to the savings of the poor, had occurred to this writer, the detail of which is here given. We much commend these designs, as far as they tend to render the poor provident: but we are not of opinion that, even in this respect, legislative interference can be of any benefit. Highly erroneous as we deem the present system of poor-laws to be, we cannot help regarding it as a most fortunate circumstance, that the government has no concern in its administration; and we are convinced that any alteration in this respect would only occasion the burthens of the public to be increased, and the poor to be worse provided. Improvements in the condition of the poor are only to be effected by the exertions of private associations, and of private individuals; the legislature cannot any otherwise assist in them than by regulations and provisions which are very general. Jo.

SOUTH AMERICA.

Art 24. *Buenos Ayres. Truth and Reason, versus Calumny and Folly*: in which the leading Circumstances of General Whitelocke's Conduct in South America are explained. With an Appendix, in Answer to an expensive Publication of last Week, refuting every Personality therein advanced. 8vo. 2s. Kerby and Bowdery.

In order to give this pamphlet any weight or authority, the public should know that it comes from a man who was personally acquainted with the events which he discusses, and that he was professionally qualified to speak on such a subject. On both these points, however, the writer avows his own insufficiency; for he states that his remarks 'are *unauthentic*; and have nothing to support them farther than *the* frequent opportunities of inquiries among

those who were present;' and he acknowleges that he is not a military man. Of this last fact, every person in any degree conversant with military affairs would be fully sensible after having perused the pamphlet, without the above specific information of it. Indeed, the character of the whole tract is such as might be expected from the circumstances under which it is produced: it is not written either with ability in a professional point of view, nor even with correctness as a composition: it is evidently designed for a particular purpose, and is calculated to disguise instead of to elicit truth: but it will tend rather to injure than to serve the cause which it espouses.

The Appendix refers to a work noticed in page 63 of this Review, but it does not explain any one point of consequence, and scarcely merits notice.

G.R. abridged from Glen.

POETRY.

Art. 25. *The Henriade of Mr. de Voltaire.* Translated by Daniel French, Esq 8vo. pp. 336. 6s. Boards. Sancho.

The disappearance of all former translations of Voltaire's poem, which possibly induced Mr. French to present the public with a new version, should, in our judgment, have been sufficient to convince him that no such work was necessary; yet we are at a loss to assign any other motive which urged him to the undertaking. His motto, extracted from the Abbé de Lille's *Poeme sur l'Imagination*, is a pointed censure on the subject of the Henriade; in p. 24, he observes, in a note, that 'it would be tedious and unprofitable to enumerate all the faults which the critics find in it;' and though, in this last passage, he does take occasion to pay some high compliments to his original author, whom he styles 'a blazing wonder,' and whose poem he designates as 'a sweet garden,' he admits that a knowlege of the French is necessary for a full enjoyment of 'the sweet fruit it bears;' which seems to imply that its beauties are incapable of transfusion into another language.

If this version did not originate in an enthusiastic admiration of the author of the poem, still less can it be attributed to a wish to investigate the difficulties that occur in the most important æra of French history, or to throw new light on the interesting facts with which it abounds. The notes, with the single exception, we believe, of that from which we have copied the preceding eulogy, are taken from the common French editions of the poem; and Voltaire's masterly sketch of the reign of Henry the fourth and the three preceding reigns is subjoined in English, without one additional fact, annotation, or reflection, from the translator.

Though, however, we cannot pretend to account for Mr. French's publication, we are by no means disposed to complain of it; nor ashamed to confess the pleasure with which we always contemplate the life and character of one of the greatest and best of men, as well as the mild, beneficent, and tolerant maxims of government which are taught by his eventful reign. We think, also, that the present translation is very commendably executed. It is at once free and faithful; the language is unaffected; and the versification, though sometimes weak and careless, is almost throughout easy and

flowing

flowing. We discover in it, indeed, rather too much of the "brave neglect;" and we are satisfied that the grammatical faults, which may be sometimes detected, are the result not of ignorance but of haste. In employing the French proper names, occasional liberties are taken, by shifting and misplacing the accents; and it appears peculiarly injudicious to alter the name of so conspicuous a character as Mayenne, who is constantly called *Mayne*. The errors in the verse are not numerous: but surely *Aumale* and *all*, *calmed* and *armed*, *swoln* and *flown*, are wholly inadmissible as rhymes.

We transcribe the account of Henry in the hour of victory, after the battle of Ivry, as a fair specimen of the translator's verse:

'With rage his disappointed troops survey,
Snatched from their swords, the slaughter of the day.
Silent the miserable captives bend,
And at the conqueror's feet their doom attend.
In every eye despair, shame, horror spoke,
And tears and sobs his clemency invoke.
Compassion touched heroic Bourbon's breast,
While mildly thus the vanquished he addrest:
Arise! and profit of the choice I give,
Return to Mayne, or my companions live!
To serve in bondage to my foes agree,
To groan with them, or triumph under me.
These words, which from a king and conqueror came,
Covered with glory in the field of fame,
Amazed, revived th' abandoned to despair:
Sudden the vanquished in the conquest share;
Their eyes enlightened all his virtues viewed,
They owned their error, joyed to be subdued;
Proud of their fate, and eager where he leads
To expiate in his cause their past misdeeds.'

Mr. F. states in his dedication that he had begun to translate Voltaire's dissertation on the principal epic poems that have appeared in Europe, but that his hand was stopped by the degrading criticism there passed on our 'divine Milton,' with which he could not persuade himself to sully our language. Den.

AGRICULTURE, *&c.*

Art. 26. *The Forest Pruner*; or the Timber Owner's Assistant: being a Treatise on the training or Management of British Timber Trees; whether intended for Use, Ornament, or Shelter: including an Explanation of the Causes of their general Diseases and Defects, with the Means of Prevention, and Remedies where practicable;—also an Examination of the Properties of English Fir Timber; with Remarks on the Defect of the old, and the Outlines of a new, System for the Management of Oak Woods. With eight explanatory Plates. By William Pontey, Nurseryman and Ornamental Gardener; Author of the Profitable Planter; and Planter and Forest Pruner to the late and present Duke of Bedford. 8vo. pp. 270. 12s. Boards. White.

Compression is not the boast of modern authors: but subjects which might be discussed in a moderate sized pamphlet are dilated so

as to fill a considerable book. Professional men in particular are not satisfied unless they produce a handsome volume; and they think that their science does not appear with sufficient "pomp and circumstance," unless it issues with a sort of magnificence from the press. Mr. Pontey appears to have imbibed this prevailing idea, and has therefore spun out his theme to an unnecessary length. We by no means intimate that he is ignorant of the subjects which he professes to treat: but he is too diffuse and rambling; and more solicitous of introducing a quaint conceit, or a forced quotation, than of arranging and condensing his matter for practical uses. Seldom, indeed, have we met with a treatise more wire drawn, and less methodized. The *curl* in potatoes is called 'the pestilence that walketh in darkness;' and we are informed, in the same strain of pomposity, that this malady, to which the potatoe was for some years subject, has been 'subdued by that *Invisible* Power which "rides in the whirlwind and directs the storm"! We are tempted to give one other and longer instance of Mr. P's declamatory and verbose style, which is so ill adapted to a scientific work:

'If the reader can for a moment conceive to himself, a case extremely common; it is that of a venerable Oak, *once the pride*, now, apparently, the patriarch of the lawn; its branches decay, one after another; it droops, as it were, not under the weight of age, but its numerous infirmities:—a little longer, and its ample head, so long the subject of admiration, shall please no more.—Rottenness has seized upon its vitals, and sink it must.—The whole life of a man, devoted to the purpose, could not rear its fellow; the age of an ephemeron so devoted, in proper seasons, might have averted its fate.—Surely then no reader, who has eyes to see, or taste to appreciate the value of such objects, will grudge the time spent in investigating a cause, which oft "despoils the Oak of half its numbered years."

'A tree, past its vigour, may be aptly enough compared to a poor man; his income is scanty, and therefore, there is a necessity for husbanding every penny; it is indeed surprising, what a decent appearance many such make, by practising the most rigid economy; but, to do that, every thing must be systematic; he dares not spend an extra shilling upon any one object; as well knowing another would want it; and just such is the case with our tree.'

More than half of the volume is consumed in desultory remarks on Knottiness, Rottenness, Decayed tops, Short stems, Shaken timber, and Ivy-bound trees, before we arrive at the part devoted to *Pruning*. Here we are informed that 'every tree *with a clean stem*, from four feet and upwards in length, is completely *a trained one*;—as unassisted nature forms none of the sort:' but few readers, who have seen forests, will admit this doctrine; or will be silenced by Mr. Pontey's question '*when* and *where* they have seen trees, absolutely in a state of nature' It will be sufficient to answer that, in all wild districts, trees with clean stems may be found where no pruner has exercised his skill, and where the effect has been produced only by the operations of nature. What a number of beautifully straight oaks, with clean stems twenty feet high, are even now to

be

be found in the New Forest; and how many were once there which are now cut down? If it be true that pruning tends to improve the form and to increase the size of forest trees, it ought to be recommended: but we think that great judgment is requisite in the operation; and that without skill it is likely to do more harm than good.

The author's remarks on Plantations, on their shelter and thinning, and on ornamental trees, demand from us but little notice. For pruning on a large scale, Mr. P. prefers the saw for taking off side branches, and endeavours to remove the common prejudice against this handy tool.—In the section on Oak timber woods, he naturally adverts to the importance of our *Wooden walls*, and warmly recommends that the plantation and management of oak trees should be conducted on the most improved system.—We think that his assertion respecting the possibility of growing English Fir timber, of equal quality with foreign Fir, will be questioned: but his high commendation of the Larch will not be pronounced extravagant; nor will his laugh at the supposed merits of Mr. Forsyth's composition, and on the credulity of John Bull in this instance, be regarded as out of place. Moy.

Art. 27. *The Farmer's Daily Journal, and Complete Accomptant,* from Michaelmas to Michaelmas, containing 1. an Account of the State of the Farm, with the gross Amount of the Crop in hand; the gross Amount of the Stock and Implements. 2. Ruled Pages for every Week in the Year, in which an Account is proposed to be kept of every Day's Labour of Horses, and Labourers and Servants employed on a Farm, and the Lands and Work on which they are employed. 3. Blank Leaves for occasional Memorandums and Remarks, at the End of each Month; and a general Statement at the Conclusion of the Year, taking into the Account all the possible Expences and Outgoings of a Farm, and the total Amount of the Produce of a Farm; from which a Balance is easily struck, and the Profit and Loss of a Farm will be at once apparent. By a Practical Farmer. (To be continued annually.) 4to. pp. 140. Rivingtons.

To those farmers who wish to be methodical, this plan of accounts and method of arranging agricultural minutes may be very useful. The compiler also hints that his journal will be of essential benefit to Bailiffs and Stewards; and if he be encouraged to continue it annually, he purposes occasionally to add many observations on agricultural subjects, and to collect hints from such publications as may not otherwise come to the knowlege or be within the reach of the ordinary farmer.—A scheme of this kind must be left to speak for itself. D.o

EAST INDIES.

Art. 28. *A Letter to the Chairman of the East India Company,* on the Danger of interfering in the religious Opinions of the Natives of India; and on the Views of the British and Foreign Bible Society, as directed to India. By Thomas Twining, late senior Merchant on the Bengal Establishment. Third Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway.

Art.

Art. 29. *A Few Cursory Remarks on Mr. Twining's Letter to the Chairman of the East India Company.* By a Member of the British and Foreign Bible Society. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Art. 30. *An Address to the Chairman of the East India Company, occasioned by Mr. Twining's Letter to that Gentleman,* &c. &c. By the Rev. John Owen, M.A. Curate of Fulham, and one of the gratuitous Secretaries of the British and Foreign Bible Society. Second Edition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

The diffusion of religious truth is a matter of great moment, and the adoption of proper measures for accelerating it must administer satisfaction to every good Christian: but it should not be forgotten that there may be "a zeal for God which is not according to knowlege," and that many schemes are piously planned which in their execution are productive of more injury than benefit. If we admit Mr. Twining's report respecting the efforts made by the Missionaries of the Bible Society in the East, we have more reason to be alarmed than gratified by their exertions; since we must apprehend that, by the religious innovation which they are labouring to introduce, they will (as he says) spread indignation from one end of Hindostan to the other, and 'that the arms of fifty millions of people will then rise against us, and drive us with as much ease from that portion of the globe as the sand of the desert is scattered by the wind.' Having long been resident among the natives of India, he may be supposed well acquainted with their character; and he speaks of them as 'a religious rather than a political people, who are as much attached to their Religion, as *we* are to our Constitution.' On these grounds, he ventures to express his fears of the consequences which might result from the proselyting labours of the Bible-Society Missionaries; especially when he considers how warmly they are patronized by some of the most respectable members of the Court of Directors and the Board of Controul.

The author of *Cursory Remarks* accuses Mr. Twining, in consequence of his admonitory address to the Chairman of the East India Company, of endeavoring 'to frighten the Company *from imparting* the blessings of Christianity to 50 millions of people in India; and of representing the circulation of the Scriptures among them as a crime of the deepest dye:'—while Mr. Owen exults at finding that Mr. Twining has *proved* '*Nothing*' against the Bible Society, whose object is specific and confined; and who must spurn the imputation which is attempted to be fastened on them.

As reporters of this controversy, we must remark that Mr. Twining does not endeavour to *prove any overt-act of false zeal* committed against the superstitions of India, so much as the danger which he perceives to be approaching from an interference to which the agents of the Bible Society, under the patronage of our government in the East, may be stimulated. This *danger* is not discussed in either of the pamphlets in reply to Mr. Twining, which are confined to a vindication of the *views of the Bible Society*. If Mr. T. has sounded a *false* alarm, his letter can do no evil: but if he has exposed a latent ardour for proselytism in certain persons, by which the existence of our empire in the East may be endangered,—or, if

by only calling the attention of the East India Company at large to a serious consideration of the subjects mentioned in the title of his pamphlet, he has contributed to check the extravagance of inflamed zeal, to disclose the schemes of mistaken policy or of *ecclesiastical ambition** in India, and to prompt measures of sound discretion,—he is certainly intitled to the thanks of the Company and of the public.

Two or three other pamphlets on this discussion have appeared, which we have not yet seen.

Mo-y.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 31. *A Letter to the Right Hon. the Earl of D*** on the Political Relations of Russia, in regard to Turkey, Greece and France; and on the Means of preventing the French establishing a permanent Controul over Russia: with Strictures on Mr. Thornton's Present State of Turkey, &c.* By William Eton, Esq. Author of a Survey of the Turkish Empire, of Materials for a History of the Maltese, &c. Superintendent General of the quarantine Department, and President of the Board of Health in Malta, &c. 8vo. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1807.

We cannot compliment Mr. Eton very highly on this pamphlet, whether it be really intended as a vehicle of his sentiments respecting our securing an alliance with Russia at all events and by all concessions, or for the purpose which it avows, of replying to the objections of Mr. Thornton against the accuracy of Mr. Eton's former volume on Turkey. We confess that we can discover no arguments of extraordinary cogency or novelty, no remarkably acute reasoning, nor the production of convincing proofs, either in the one case or the other. If it were Mr. E.'s first object to confute Mr. T., this should rather have been done by facts than by explanations of meanings, or by bare denial. The intelligent English reader of the works of these gentlemen, who is desirous of sterling information, and wishes to make up his mind on the subject of Levant history and politics, is now told by the one that the other author has either given a loose rein to his prejudices, or has glossed over his ignorance concerning almost every topic of which he treats.

Mr. Eton opens the charge, or rather the recrimination, as follows:

'I have been induced to make these observations, and to enter upon the above explanation, in consequence of a work which has lately appeared, under the title of the Present State of Turkey, professed to be written by a Mr. Thornton, a gentleman who states himself to have resided, during several years, at Constantinople. The tendency of his work is the opposite of mine. His aim appears to me to exalt the character of the Turks; to vindicate them from the observations of other writers, and to deteriorate our estimation of every thing connected with the Russian system. It is therefore to this circumstance, perhaps, and, as I am willing to believe, not to any personal

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* It has been hinted that the establishment of *Asiatic Bishoprics* would facilitate the work of propagating the Faith.

motives

motives of resentment or ill-will, that I am to ascribe the peculiar severity which this gentleman has evinced towards myself, throughout the whole course of his dissertation. He has thought proper to deny most of the facts, and to combat many of the positions which I have advanced, in what I have written upon the same subject. This circumstance alone would authorize my intruding myself once more on the attention of the public, in order to vindicate the accuracy of my own statements, and expose the many errors and fallacious reasoning which this gentleman has adopted.

'Whatever reason, however, I may have to complain of the manner in which I have been brought forward by Mr. Thornton—my sentences garbled—my opinions misrepresented—my name industriously and unnecessarily introduced in almost every page, with no other view, it should seem, than to depreciate any estimation which I might have acquired, I know not whether I should have publicly noticed this performance, had not the matter of his work become of *the highest importance in the present moment*. Your Lordship, perhaps, will think that I have little reason to be alarmed for my own credit, on account of any thing which has been written by this gentleman. Although he bluntly contradicts what I have advanced, not always in the politest terms—although he repeatedly asserts, that things are not as I have stated them, in my Survey of the Turkish Empire, I may be permitted, however, to ask, whether in questioning the accuracy of my positions, he has ever ventured to state what the truth really is; and yet this, I apprehend, is required of any author, who undertakes to impeach the credit of another. If he had corrected any error, into which I had fallen, I should instantly have confessed myself mistaken, and even expressed to him my obligations.

'But what one author has this gentleman spared, even after he has plundered him? How many, besides myself, has he dragged in, with no other view than to abuse them?

'Upon the general nature of Mr. Thornton's work, it is not necessary, or perhaps becoming, that I should say much. I might challenge him to point out what is really new in his book. Has he fully digested any particular subject? given the various opinions of authors on the same point; and, adding his own observations, drawn a clear and rational conclusion? Has he any where elucidated one doubtful fact of importance? His readers will best judge.

'To me his work, so far from being original, has appeared to contain scarcely any thing new with regard to its ostensible subject. In a general view, as far as such an inflated assemblage of heterogeneous matter can be characterized, it comprehends little else than the old stories of the French eulogists on the Turks, repeated with less precision, method, or address.'

Of the future dominion of the rich provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia, there seems to be but one opinion; which is, that it must inevitably pass from the Ottoman power. Whether it would be better for this country that the Austrians or the Russians should obtain it, is a subject on which Messrs. E. and T. maintain irreconcileable sentiments.

That

That Greece should fall into the hands of the Russians is a matter, according to Mr. Eton, by no means to be prevented or deprecated by us. We are to be, at all events, the firm allies of Russia; and if such an enlargement of territory should induce her ever to treat us with insolence, Mr. E. 'cannot help considering Malta as a straight-waistcoat which may be used in case of temporary insanity in the Russian councils' (p. 20, and more at p. 32.) We may now avail ourselves of this hint.—When he accuses his competitor of gross partiality in favour of the Turks, he takes an odd method of proving it, by reprinting Mr. Thornton's very severe but just remarks *against* them. 'Upon the whole, whenever Mr. T. has to contradict the opinion of others, he is full *as abusive* of the Turks as he accuses me of being; and upon such occasions he vindicates them, with all his might.' (p. 79.)

Mr. Eton's partiality to the Russian cause may be explained by many who have either resided in or visited the Levant. We decline all personality: but such a panegyric, many pages in length, with the following conclusion, can be attributed only to extraordinary calls of gratitude:

'Society, in short, both at the court of St. Petersburgh and at Moscow, is most agreeable, instructive, and refined. The very great acuteness of the Russians; their natural penetration, and good sense; their desire of pleasing, perhaps from vanity; and the conscious sense to what a high state of refinement society has attained among them, with the national pride of being thought more polite than any other; all contribute to produce a wonderful degree of perfection.'

Mr. T. having inserted a severe note concerning a work, called "The Present State of the Ottoman Empire, translated from the French MS. of Elias Habesci, many years resident at Constantinople, in the Service of the Grand Signor, London, 1784," as a manufacture under a suppositious name, and having given shrewd intimations of its real author, Mr. E. confesses that his temper 'was somewhat ruffled.' (p. 95). Why? Because E. Habesci is called by Mr. T. *an ignorant impostor*, &c. (*ibid.*)

We are tempted to make a conjectural effort to reconcile the extreme discrepancy of evidence given by these contending authors, (*Arcades ambo!*) respecting the Levant and its concerns. We think that Mr. Eton determines the Turkish character from the Pachas, and collectors of the Haradj or capitation tax, whom he has seen in the islands and in Greece; and that of the Greeks from those whom he has known in their native country. Mr. Thornton, having been resident in the Capital, draws his portrait of the Turks from the Porte and city; in which the Greeks have no national importance, and are inferior in point of population, and where they exist and thrive only by arts which disgrace all moral principles.

Dally

Art. 32. *The Rising Sun*, a Serio-comic Satiric Romance. By Cervantes Hogg, F. S. M. 12mo. 3 vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Appleyard. 1807.

This *Fellow of the Swinish Multitude* (for such is the title with which the writer has thought proper to dub himself) takes very audacious

audacious liberties with the most elevated characters in the state, and lets loose his *hoggish* satire on "kings and sons of kings," as if these privileged individuals had no peculiar sanctity by which they were hedged in and discriminated from the croud. We allow his talents to be superior to those of his grunting brethren; and his exertion of them in these volumes will probably be acceptable to many readers in this age of love for scandal and satire. Moy.

Art. 33. *Thoughts on Affectation*, addressed chiefly to Young People. 8vo. pp. 296. 6s. Boards. Wilkie and Robinson.

That affectation which is discoverable in persons of different ages, sexes, and conditions of life, is here treated at large; the various virtues and vices, amiable qualifications, disagreeable habits of mankind, and the accidental circumstances of life, are also examined; and it is shewn that, in these several particulars, instances of affectation are frequently found, and sometimes of the most absurd nature.

The writer, who it appears is a female, has contrived to discuss the several subjects in an amusing as well as instructive manner, and has agreeably illustrated them with familiar examples. Indeed, the work seems to be the result of much experience, and a long course of observation: the production of one who was able to discover the motives of her own heart, and had sagacity sufficient to find out those of others; who could see through the veil of deceit, and possessed ability to expose it to the world.

On account, then, of the excellent tendency of this volume, and of the just sentiments and valuable advice which it contains, we warmly recommend it for the instruction of young people. A careful perusal of it will not only contribute to teach them a knowlege of the world, but the still more important knowlege of themselves: indeed, persons of every age may reap benefit from it, as it may occasion them to throw off that disguise of character which is certainly too prevalent. W. Re-s.

Art. 34. *Rays of Genius*, collected to enlighten the Rising Generation. By Thomas Tomkins. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 321. and 341. 15s. extra Boards. Longman and Co.

Short essays on the most familiar and interesting subjects compose this work, which is partly original, and partly a compilation. The author's design is not only to excite in youth a desire for literary pursuits, but also to recommend the cultivation of refined taste and virtuous affections. To illustrate the subjects which he engages to discuss, quotations from the best authors in the English language, both in prose and verse, are brought forwards; and, as these contain some of the most elegant specimens, and are selected with taste, the volumes have considerable attraction. Do

Art 35. *An Excursion from Sidmouth to Chester*, in the Summer of 1803, in a Series of Letters to a Lady. Including Sketches of the principal Towns and Villages in the Counties of Devon, Somerset, Gloucester, Monmouth, Hereford, Salop, Derby, Stafford, Warwick, and Worcester; interspersed with biographical Anecdotes, and incidental Remarks; particularly intended for the

the Information and Amusement of the rising Generation. By the Rev. Edmund Butcher. 12mo. 2 Vols. pp. 462. 8s. Boards. Symonds.

These letters give an historical and descriptive account of the several places which lay in the author's route, and are written in an entertaining manner. In order to make the work more perfect, extracts from other tourists, descriptive of the neighbouring places which Mr. Butcher could not conveniently visit, are occasionally given; and farther to add to its utility, a variety of moral reflections are introduced, which were suggested by incidents that occurred in the excursion. As the author is not of the established church, this circumstance sometimes gives a peculiar cast to his sentiments; which, however, any liberal person will acknowlege to be very moderate. In short, from the instruction and entertainment that may be derived from these letters, we think that Mr. B. was justified in making them public; and that not only 'private friendship,' but also general readers will be gratified by a perusal of them.

W.Re-s.

Art. 36. *Politics of the Georgium Sidus:* or Advice how to become great Senators and Statesmen; interspersed with characteristic Sketches and Hints on various Subjects in Modern Politics. By a late Member of Parliament. Crown 8vo. pp. 178. 5s. 6d. Boards. Oddy and Co. 1807.

Somewhat after the manner of Swift's Rules for Servants, advice is here volunteered to the genteel part of the rising generation; who are already so much modelled on the plan suggested, that the intended irony almost disappears. Our modern gentlemen of *ton* will scarcely conceive the ridicule of having it recommended to them to discard the pedantry of science and literature, and to seek distinction by imitating their own stable-boys and coach-men; to prefer boxing-matches, bull-baiting, &c. to mental improvement; and to be ambitious of no other fame than that which results from a pre-eminence in fashionable vices. This system of levelling *down* is more encouraged than the plan of levelling *up*; though in our judgment it is the most fatal species of Jacobinism. If irony could shame our nobility and gentry into a more dignified conduct, we should rejoice.

Truth, it has been said, may be the greatest libel, and so it sometimes is in the review of political characters. The opposition politics of our Georgium Sidus are largely *ironized*, and some of the members of the late administration come in for a few hard knocks. Undertaking to give rules for the education and subsequent conduct of a young M.P. through all the stages of his political life, the writer artfully sketches the traits of those who have been the most celebrated leaders of opposition; and he wishes to have it believed that these men are neither wiser nor better than those who, regarding "self-love and social as the same," never pretended to love their country better than they loved themselves. The author attempts to smile: but some of his readers will say that it is a smile suffused with gall.

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In replying to the second letter of *Veritas*, we must observe that it is no more surprising that different systems of theology should be erected on the basis of Revelation, than that different systems of philosophy should be deduced from the works of Nature. We cannot think, with him, that in the varieties of religious faith the nature of the Supreme Being is implicated. Diversities of opinion occur on the plainest questions, and therefore afford no evidence to prove a want of clearness in Revelation. To every denomination and sect, it appears to speak without ambiguity. The Unitarian and the Jew will say that no words could possibly have been employed more fully to express the absolute Unity of God, than those which are used in the O. T.; and yet the great majority of Christian churches perceive, in this part of the Bible, testimonies in support of the doctrine of a Trinity. Before an absolute uniformity of opinion can take place, mankind must be so moulded as to see matters through the same medium, and to collect and arrange their ideas precisely in the same way.

We shall take this opportunity of illustrating our remark that some prophecies may be in the nature of 'sealed orders,' the contents or meaning of which were not immediately to be disclosed. When our Saviour prophetically observed, "Destroy this temple, and in three days I will build it up," he conveyed, and *designedly* conveyed, at the time, no meaning: but, after his Resurrection, which may be said to have opened the seal of this prediction, every doubt vanished respecting its purport.

We have not seen the *Ecclesiasticæ Horæ*, nor had we heard of the work previously to the receipt of the author's letter concerning it.

In our last number, we omitted to acknowlege our *Gloucester* correspondent's letter, &c. on the *Exercise of a Squadron*.

We could state many objections against the scheme proposed by R.B., which we do not deem it necessary to enumerate; *one* of them would be that we should not conceive it to be *practicable*.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. LIV. of the Review is published with this Number, and contains various interesting articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *Title*, *Index*, &c. for the volume. On this occasion, we repeat the notice inserted in our last number:

'We have often received complaints from our readers, respecting the irregular manner in which our Appendixes are supplied to them by their booksellers; and we are sorry again to have occasion for adverting to this subject. We request our friends, however, to observe that the *publication* of our supplements, if not the *delivery* of them in the country, invariably takes place with that of the numbers for the months of January, May, and September in every year; and it in fact rests with them to impress on their booksellers a due attention to the supply of these numbers, in which alone we give accounts of the productions of Continental presses, and without which no copy of the M.R. can ever be complete, or be bound up in volumes.'

Errors. pp. 34, 42, 82, 96, 102.